

REMAINS FROM THE BYZANTINE TO THE LATE OTTOMAN– BRITISH MANDATE PERIODS AT MAZOR

ITAMAR TAXEL AND DAVID AMIT

INTRODUCTION

The archeological site of Mazor (map ref. 195486/661795), situated within the modern city of El'ad, is located on a hill c. 160 m above sea level that forms part of the southwestern fringes of the Samaria Hills, overlooking the eastern part of the Lod Valley (Fig. 1). The site's modern name derives from the name of the Arab village al-Muzayri'ah, which existed here until 1948 (Khalidi 1992:309). During the nineteenth century, the village and

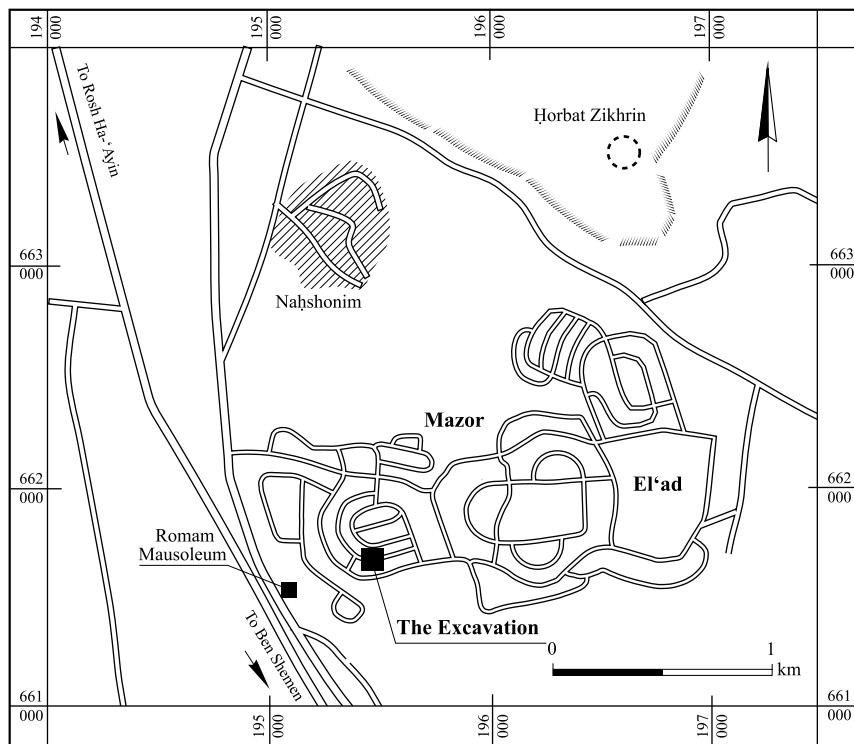


Fig. 1. Location map.

its vicinity were visited and surveyed by a number of European travelers and scholars, including Guérin (1875:390) and Conder and Kitchener (1882:291), who briefly described the humble settlement. The site was more recently included in the survey of the Map of Rosh Ha-‘Ayin (Kochavi and Beit-Arieh 1994:69*–70*). The most prominent ancient structure near Mazor, documented by the Palestine Exploration Fund surveyors, is a small, but nearly fully preserved, mausoleum—known in Arabic as Maqam en-Nabi Yahya—situated near the western foot of the hill (see Conder and Kitchener 1882:365–370; Kochavi and Beit-Arieh 1994:70*). This mausoleum was excavated by J. Kaplan in the 1980s and was dated to the late third–late fourth centuries CE; it later became a Muslim shrine and its immediate environs were used as a cemetery for the local peasant population (Kaplan 1985).

Regarding the latest phase at the site, it is noteworthy that the village of al-Muzayri‘ah is mentioned, as Mazra‘a, in the Ottoman tax registers from 1596 CE. It was then inhabited by only seven Muslim family heads and bachelors. At that time, 33.3% of its agricultural production, which included wheat, barley, summer crops, olive trees, goats and beehives, as well as occasional revenues, was taxed (Hütteroth and Abdulfatah 1977:136). According to Khalidi (1992:309), the village was probably deserted in the seventeenth century and reoccupied in the eighteenth century. The settlement steadily grew, in size and population, during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

Since the early 1990s, many salvage excavations and archaeological surveys were conducted in the vicinity of El‘ad, prior to its founding and during its construction, revealing that the area was densely covered with ancient remains: structures, tombs, agricultural and industrial installations, terrace walls, agricultural enclosures, stone heaps, stone fences, animal pens, cisterns, roads and quarries. Although most of these date from the Hellenistic period to the days of the British Mandate, there are also earlier remains and finds that date to between the Chalcolithic and Persian periods. The region flourished particularly during the Hellenistic and Byzantine periods. It is assumed that most of the contemporaneous remains have an affinity with one of the two major ancient sites in the area—Mazor and Horbat Zikhrin to its northeast (Fig. 1; see Gudovitch 1998; Amit 1999; Amit and Zilberbod 2001; Taxel 2006a; 2006b).

The two excavations discussed in the present report on the western slope of the ancient site were carried out in May–June and July–August 2003 and in December 2003–January 2004, prior to construction activity in El‘ad. Both the first (Area M5) and second (Areas C and E2) excavations were located along Shammai Street, c. 170 m apart.¹ The three excavation areas yielded substantial architectural remains from the Byzantine and late

¹ The excavations were carried out by the late David Amit on behalf of the Israel Antiquities Authority and were funded by Ahuzat ‘Adi Ltd. (Permit No. A-3906) and ‘Arim Ltd. (Permit No. A-4041). Participants included Itamar Taxel and Lisa Yehuda (supervision of Areas C and E2), Yehezkel Dangur, Shlomo Ya‘aqov-Jam and Eliyahu Bachar (administration), Vadim Essman, Viacheslav Pirsky and Avraham Hajian (surveying), Tsila Sagiv (field photography), Nachum Dardik (metal detection), Natalia Zak (preparation of plans and sections), Olga Shor (pottery restoration), Lena Kuperschmidt (cleaning of metal finds), Clara Amit (finds photography), Alena Pikovsky (finds drawing), Yael Gorin-Rosen (identification of glass finds) and Donald T. Ariel (numismatics). Regrettably, the excavation diaries of Area E2 were lost sometime after the excavations. Therefore, no data regarding the measured elevations of the excavated remains in this area are available, and the information presented below is based mostly on a summary of the remains prepared by the area supervisor.

Ottoman–British Mandate periods, while Area C also yielded poor remains from the Early Islamic and Mamluk–early Ottoman periods. The Hellenistic and Early Roman periods were represented throughout the excavated areas by small finds only.

THE EXCAVATIONS

Area M5

This area, composed of a cluster of eight squares and two additional isolated squares to the east (altogether c. 160 sq m; Plan 1; Fig. 2), revealed architectural remains and finds dated to the Byzantine and late Ottoman–British Mandate periods. In addition, the excavation yielded pottery sherds from the Hellenistic and Early Roman periods with no association to architectural elements.

The Byzantine Period

This period is represented by the remains of a building, oriented northeast–southwest, that had been severely disturbed by late Ottoman and/or British Mandate construction over its remains. The excavated part of the Byzantine-period building included sections of five walls, all of which were preserved only to the height of the foundation course (0.3 m high, 0.7 m wide); therefore, no associated floor remains were found. These foundations, made



Fig. 2. Area M5, general view looking east.



Plan 1. Area M5, plan and section.



Fig. 3. Area M5, corner of Byzantine W216 and W218, looking southwest.

of small to large fieldstones, were built directly over bedrock. Two of the walls (W213 and W216) were identified as the building's southern and northern walls respectively, since their external face was coated with a thick, sloping layer of white plaster mixed with tiny stone grits (Fig. 3). At least in the case of W213, the bottom part of the plaster coating was laid over a layer of brown earth fill (L24, L29; 0.15–0.20 m thick) that contained pottery sherds dated to the late Hellenistic, Early Roman and Byzantine periods. The two walls were connected by a third wall (W214), which continued as a short section (W218) slightly to the north of W216 until abutting the bedrock surface that rises steeply to the north in this part of the area. Another short wall (W215) continued the line of W216 to the west and it too abutted the same steep bedrock surface. It therefore seems that W215 and W218 functioned as supporting walls for the structure rather than actual walls of one of its rooms. However, although it is quite clear that the building continued further east, the possibility that it also included additional units to the west of W214 and/or to the north of W215/W216 cannot be precluded.

A relatively thin layer of brown earth fill similar to that found to the south of W213 was identified north of W213 (L25) and north of W216 (L33). It contained late Hellenistic to Byzantine-period pottery sherds (Figs. 25:14; 26:2, 14; 27:3, 8, 14; though L33 also included intrusive late Ottoman–British Mandate sherds). This fill most likely served to level the sloping natural bedrock surface and to function as the foundation for floors and other activity surfaces that were not preserved; the early (pre-Byzantine) material found in this fill (including that found in L24 and L29; Fig. 25:8–10, 16, 21) apparently originated in other parts of the site, while the latest pottery sherds from these foundations allow dating the building's construction to the mid-fifth–early sixth centuries CE.



Fig. 4. Area M5, corner of late Ottoman W211 and W212, looking north.

The Late Ottoman and British Mandate Periods

As mentioned, the Byzantine-period remains were found covered and largely disturbed by at least one building that was founded over them sometime in the late Ottoman period (probably in the nineteenth century CE). This building was apparently in use until the village of al-Muzayri‘ah was abandoned in 1948. The excavated remains of this building, which was oriented northeast–southwest, though on a different axis than the Byzantine-period structure, included three walls (c. 1 m wide), all of which were founded on bedrock. Two walls (W211, W217) formed a corner (Fig. 4), and probably functioned as the building’s western and northern external walls. A doorway (c. 1.3 m wide) with a threshold built of two dressed stones was located at the northern end of W211. A third wall (W212) abutted W211 from the east and likely separated two rooms/units of the same building. The three walls were built of a mixture of small and medium-sized fieldstones and some larger coarsely-dressed stones bonded with whitish mortar; these were preserved to a height of one to three courses (up to 1.4 m high, which in the case of W212 and the southern section of W211, included two foundation courses and one upper course), depending on the height of the bedrock surface. The leveled bedrock also functioned as the floor of the building’s northwestern corner, while the rest of the floor—at least in one preserved section (L28)—was made of medium-sized fieldstones. The main loci associated with the construction and occupation period of this building (e.g., L13, L14, L23, L28, L31, L33) yielded pottery sherds dating to the late Ottoman and British Mandate periods (eighteenth/nineteenth to mid-twentieth centuries; Fig. 31:4), often in addition to residual late Hellenistic- to Byzantine-period sherds.



Fig. 5. Area E2 and the northeastern corner of Area C, general view looking north.

Some 3 to 4 m to the west and northwest of the late Ottoman building, one or two walls were observed in the western part of the section, which had been built parallel to W211 and apparently belonged to another contemporaneous structure. Also, during the excavation of the two isolated squares to the east (not illustrated), wall debris and poor remains of a floor (L17; the nature of the locus was not given in the excavation diaries) were found, built about 1 m above the bedrock. The earth fill under the floor (L18) was reported in the excavation diaries as containing late Ottoman- to British Mandate-period pottery sherds, which were not saved.

Areas C and E2

These two adjacent areas are located c. 170 m to the east of Area M5. Area C, an expansion of Gudovitch's 1993 excavation (Gudovitch 1998:58), included seven squares and half-squares, mostly excavated in two clusters (altogether c. 150 sq m; Plan 2). Area E2, located to the northwest of Area C, included about 20 squares and half-squares (altogether c. 350 sq m; Plan 3; Fig. 5). Both areas yielded architectural remains and finds representing two main phases—the Byzantine and the late Ottoman–British Mandate periods, with Area C revealing scant remains and finds from the Early Islamic and Mamluk–early Ottoman periods as well.



Fig. 6. Area C, section of Byzantine W88, looking north.

The Byzantine Period

The excavations of Areas C and E2 revealed substantial architectural remains dated to the Byzantine period represented by two large adjacent buildings, both oriented north–south (with a slight deviation to the southeast)—Building I and Building II.

Building I. Remains attributed to this building were unearthed in Area C (Plan 2). The southern wall of the building (W88) was exposed along a line c. 21 m long. A short section (c. 4.5 m) of this wall was already partially excavated by Gudovitch (1998:58, Fig. 106 [his W21]), who did not date it but apparently attributed it to a construction phase that pre-dated the Ottoman period. The wall was c. 0.75 m wide and was preserved to a maximal height of five courses (c. 2.3 m). It was composed of a foundation course made of large, coarsely dressed stones laid on the bedrock and upper courses made of well-dressed ashlar; the wall's inner (northern) face was partially built of smaller dressed stones and fieldstones (Fig. 6). Another wall, which seems to have functioned as the building's western wall, abutted W88 from the north and was excavated as two separate sections (W89 and W96); its overall length was c. 17.5 m and it was preserved to a maximal height of three courses (c. 1.3 m). This wall was founded on bedrock and built similarly to W88, though it also included an external (western) face made of small fieldstones bonded with mortar and plastered, which made it c. 1.2 m thick (Fig. 7). At its northern end, it formed a corner with a third wall (W101) built parallel to W88, which was perhaps the northern wall of Building I (Fig. 8). It was unearthed for a length of c. 2.4 m and was preserved to a height of two courses (c. 0.5 m) only. It too was founded on bedrock and built of large ashlar and its width was similar to that of W88 (c. 0.6 m).



Fig. 7. Area C, the southern end of Byzantine W89/96, looking east;
at rear and at left, later W80, W81 and W92.

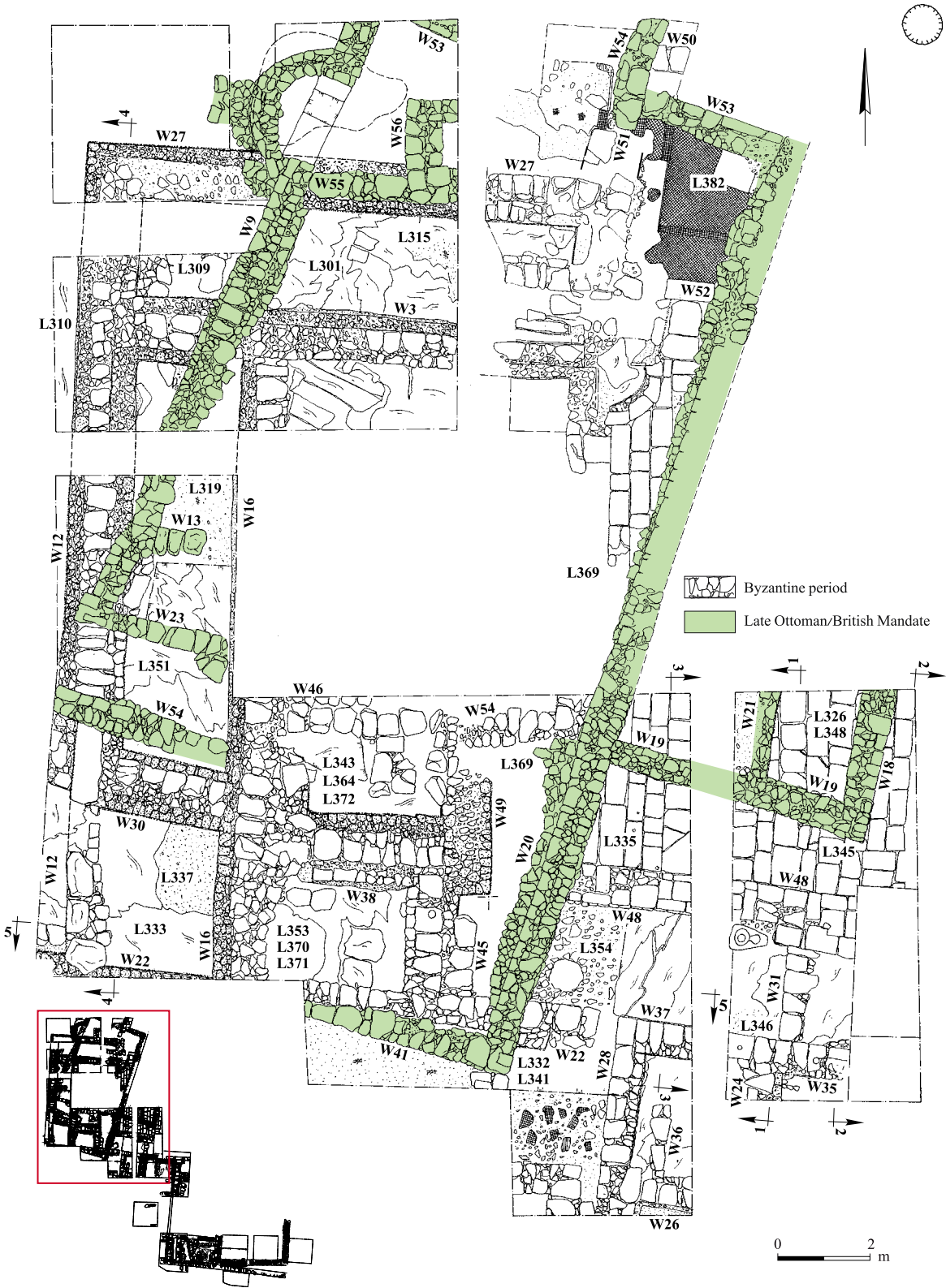


Fig. 8. Area C, the northern end of Byzantine W89/96, looking east;
in the forefront, two rooms belonging to Building II.

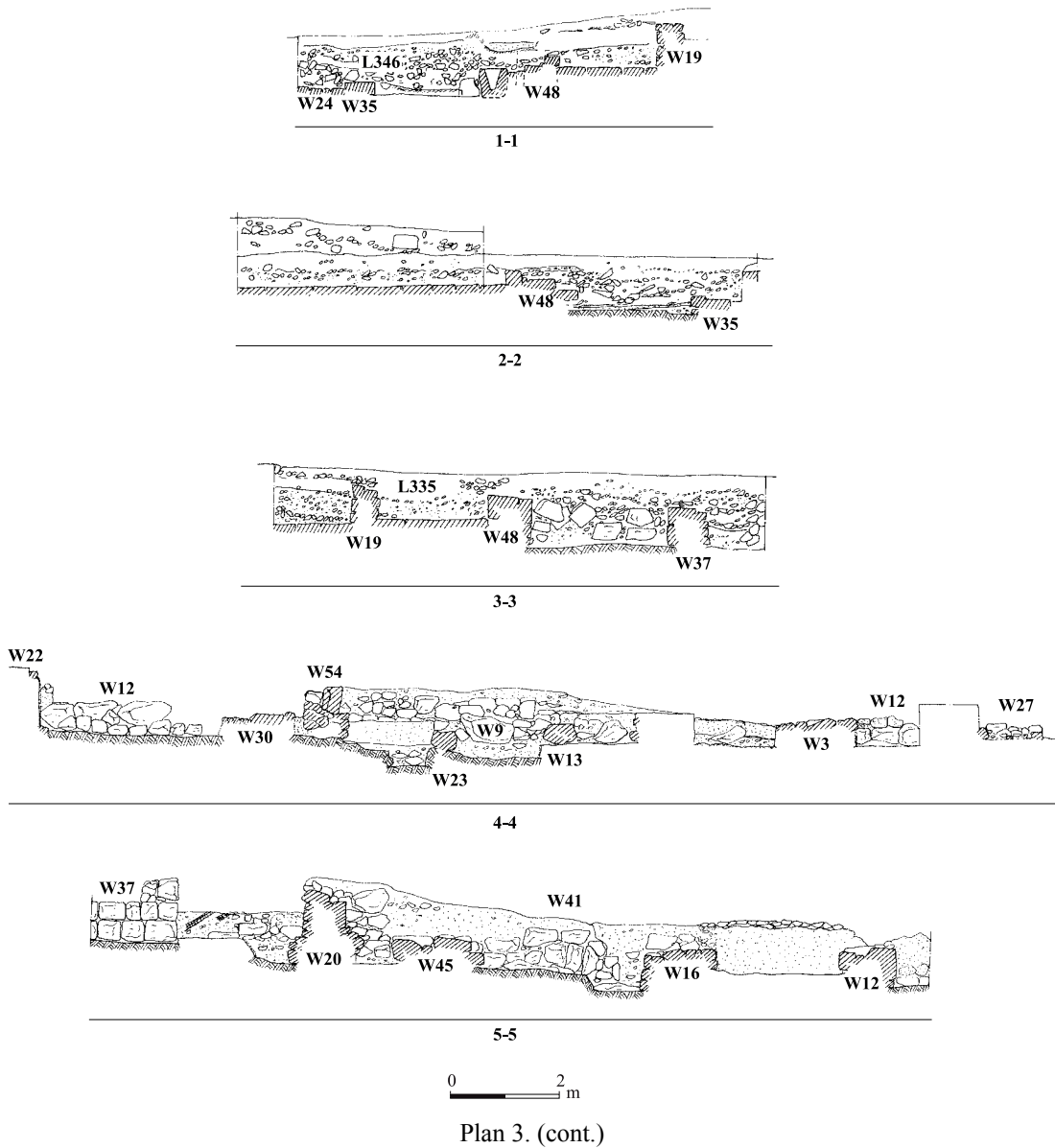
No evidence of doorways was identified in the excavated sections of the three above-mentioned walls and only scant remains of the building's interior were unearthed; this is in part due to later (mostly late Ottoman and British Mandate-period) construction that penetrated and overlaid the solid Byzantine-period walls and floors, and the extensive looting of the walls' dressed stones. One poorly preserved wall (W99; c. 0.4 m wide), built of small dressed stones and fieldstones and bonded with whitish mortar, abutted W88 from the north and apparently separated two rooms/units. In the area located to the east of W99, remains of two floors were found—one made of plaster (L522) and the other made of irregular stone slabs (L517). Both floors were laid over bedrock, though the former was c. 0.4 m higher than the stone pavement, apparently due to differences in the height of the local bedrock surface; it is therefore possible that another wall that was not preserved separated the two floors. Pottery sherds dating to the Byzantine period were found throughout the area, including on the surface of Floor 517 (Figs. 26:17; 27:12) and next to the external foundations of W88, though only in mixed fills that also contained later material. However, the earliest represented ceramic types date the building's construction or earlier phase of existence to the mid-fifth–early sixth centuries CE. Another noteworthy contemporaneous find discovered here is a small limestone column capital (Fig. 32:4) of a provincial Ionic type, which was later converted into a basin/mortar.

Building II. The remains attributed to this building were exposed mostly within Area E2, with a few additional walls unearthed in the northwestern part of Area C (Plans 2, 3). The excavated remains of Building II (overall known area c. 21.5 × 28.0 m) can be attributed to two main units. The western unit (c. 11.6 × 19.3 m) was composed of what seems to be a rectangular courtyard (c. 6.4 × 10.2 m) surrounded by rooms to its north, south and west. The original walls of this unit—both the peripheral (W12, W22, W27) and internal (W3, W16, W30, W38, W45, W49) walls—were thick (c. 1.3–1.6 m wide) and built of a core of large and medium-sized fieldstones and coarsely dressed stones bounded by one or two faces of small fieldstones bonded with mortar and plastered. Virtually all these walls were founded on bedrock (Fig. 9).

Most of the courtyard area was not excavated and its floor was probably the leveled bedrock (as exposed in its northwestern corner) or a thin layer of beaten earth that overlaid it. The courtyard was delimited by walls on the north, west and south (W3, W16, W38), though it is unclear whether it also had an eastern wall or was open to the stone-paved courtyard of the eastern unit (see below). At any rate, it seems that a corridor of some sort (c. 1.5 m wide) existed in the courtyard's southeastern corner, allowing access to the courtyard from the southern rooms of the eastern unit. To the north and west of the courtyard were two elongated rooms (c. 2.2 × 9.7 m and c. 2.2 × 9.0 m, respectively) with plaster/mortar floors laid over bedrock that were preserved in small sections only (e.g., L319, to the west of W16). The southern wing of the western unit included two small rooms located to the south of W30 (c. 2.45 × 3.35 m) and W38 (c. 2.2 × 3.0 m); in the western room, a plaster/mortar floor (L337) was partially preserved. At some later stage during the use of the western unit,



Plan 3. Area E2, plan and sections.



though still in the Byzantine period, some walls were added to it, such as W46 and W54, which were made of small to large fieldstones and some coarsely dressed stones. The latter walls were built to the north of W38 and created one or two additional small rooms within the southern part of the courtyard. Two squares excavated to the west and northwest of the western unit revealed no architectural remains, only earth fills (e.g., L352) over the bedrock.



Fig. 9. Area E2, the northwestern corner of the western unit of Byzantine Building II, looking west.

Trenches dug down to the foundations of some of the western unit's original walls (e.g., L301 to the north of W3, L310 to the west of W12, and L311 next to the southern corner of W3 and W4) revealed pottery sherds dated to the late Hellenistic (Figs. 25:6, 10, 11, 17, 18) and the Byzantine periods (Figs. 26:1, 6, 7; 27:1; 28:2). The finds from the latter period included fragments of bag-shaped jars bonded with mortar, confirming the building's dating to the Byzantine period. Additionally, sherds of other vessel types were found that date the construction to the fifth century CE (or to the early sixth century CE at the latest). Elsewhere within the western unit, earth accumulations found covering the poorly-preserved plaster/mortar floors and/or the adjacent bedrock surfaces (e.g., L333, L343, L351, L353, L364, L370, L371) similarly yielded late Hellenistic and Byzantine pottery sherds. These were accompanied by one Hellenistic (Seleucid) coin, two unidentified coins attributed generally to the Late Roman period (ascribed to the fourth–fifth centuries CE), found on Floor 337, another unidentified Late Roman coin from L353 and a coin dated to the fourth–fifth centuries CE from L371 (see Ariel, this volume: Cat. Nos. 1, 8). These finds point to an early activity in the area, though it is unclear whether the Hellenistic potsherds originated in actual structures that existed at the spot or were brought with earth fills from a nearby location during the construction of the Byzantine-period building. Further, the latest ceramic types represented in the finds from the western unit indicate that it functioned until the end of the Byzantine period. The fact that no evidence for doorways was identified in the walls of the western unit, as well as the extreme thickness of these walls and the predominance



Fig. 10. Area E2, the southeastern part of the stone-paved courtyard in the eastern unit of Byzantine Building II, looking northwest; at rear, a late Ottoman room built directly over the floor.

of storage jar fragments in the associated Byzantine ceramic assemblage, suggest that this unit functioned as a storeroom complex. Most probably, the openings of the various storage spaces were located at a higher level of their walls, or even in the ceiling/roof, and access into these storerooms was by means of wooden ladders.

The eastern unit of Building II (known area c. 9×28 m) is located between the western unit and the northwestern corner of Building I. It too was composed of a courtyard surrounded by rooms on its north and south, and possibly from the east as well. The walls of this unit were narrower than those of the western unit and resembled the walls of Building I in their characteristics; namely, they were 0.6–0.9 m wide and usually built of one face of medium-sized and large well-dressed stones and one face of small fieldstones and coarsely dressed stones. These walls were usually preserved only to a height of one or two courses, as most of their stones were reused in later periods.

The unit's courtyard (L335, L345; length c. 13 m, known width c. 7 m) was paved with well-dressed rectangular limestone slabs in diverse sizes (0.25×0.40 – 0.65×1.30 m), arranged in at least 15 rows, oriented north–south. This pavement, which belonged to the courtyard's western and southern fringes (Figs. 10–12), was exposed in several segments. However, the connection between this courtyard and the courtyard of the western unit is not clear due to later disruption of this area by the construction of walls and the looting

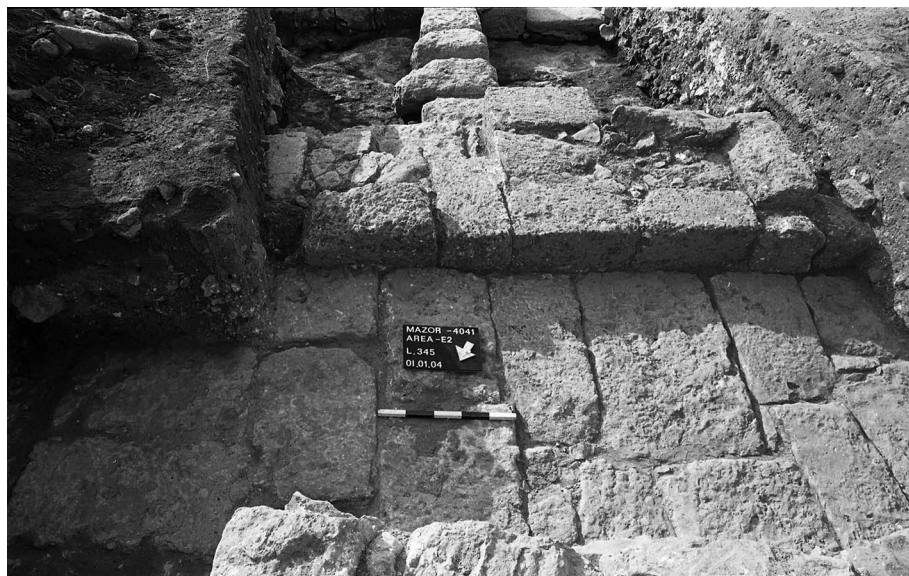


Fig. 11. Area E2, part of the southern edge of the stone-paved courtyard in the eastern unit of Byzantine Building II, looking south.

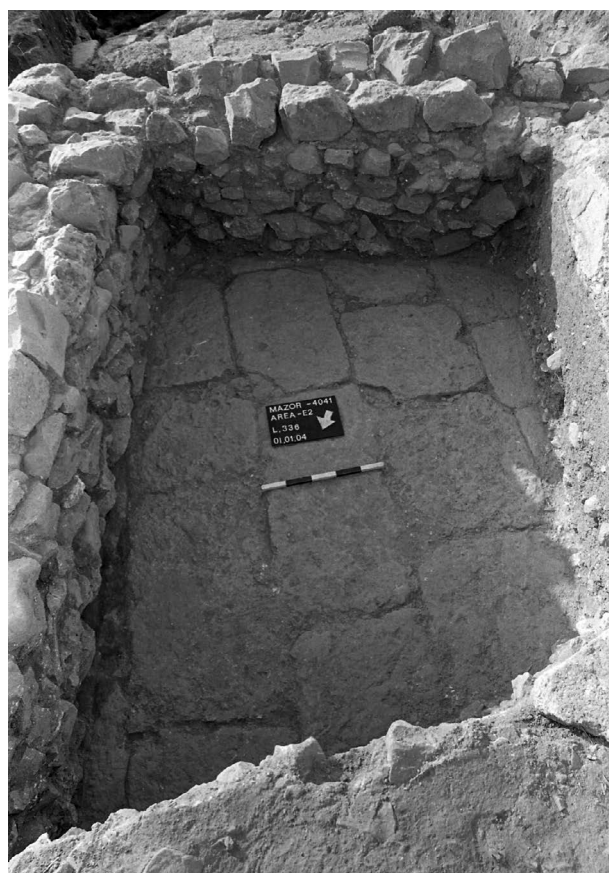


Fig. 12. Area E2, the stone pavement of the courtyard in the eastern unit of Byzantine Building II, as seen within the walls of a late Ottoman room built over it, looking south.



Fig. 13. Area E2, the plastered installation in the northwestern corner of the courtyard in the eastern unit of Byzantine Building II, looking east; at rear, late Ottoman W20.

of paving slabs during the late Ottoman period (see below). Nevertheless, it seems that a defined element such as a wall or step originally separated the two courtyards. In a test trench excavated down to bedrock along the preserved western edge of the courtyard (L369), it was found that the stone pavement was laid over a thin earth layer that covered the bedrock. This foundation layer contained a few pottery fragments. Some seem to be body sherds of Byzantine bag-shaped jars, but the only securely identifiable sherds date to the late Hellenistic period (Fig. 25:2, 4, 11, 19); this situation resembles the finds associated with the foundations of the western unit's walls (above). In the northwestern corner of the courtyard was a built-in plastered installation in the form of a quarter circle (Fig. 13), which apparently served to drain rainwater from the courtyard area into a rock-cut cistern (unexcavated) located c. 4 m to the northwest. The installation and cistern were likely connected by a built channel, which was not preserved.

To the south of W48, sections of two rows of rooms were unearthed. These rows marked the courtyard's southern edge; the northern row is represented by two rooms and the southern row by four rooms. The western room in the northern row (c. 2.4×5.8 m; Figs. 12, 14) was possibly open to the west, leading toward the corridor that led into the courtyard of the western unit, though this detail is unclear due to the construction of a late Ottoman W20 over this part of the room. The partially preserved floor of this room (L354) was made of crushed packed lime. On it were found four unidentified coins that were dated based on their flans to the fourth–fifth centuries CE. An *in situ* freestanding pressing installation (*bodeda*; c. 0.8 m long, 0.5 m wide, 0.5 m high; Figs. 14, 15) was found in the room's northeastern corner. It was cut from a limestone block and had a roughly triangular layout. At its narrow



Fig. 14. Area E2, sections of two rooms south of the courtyard in the eastern unit of Byzantine Building II, looking north; note the *in situ* pressing installation in upper left.

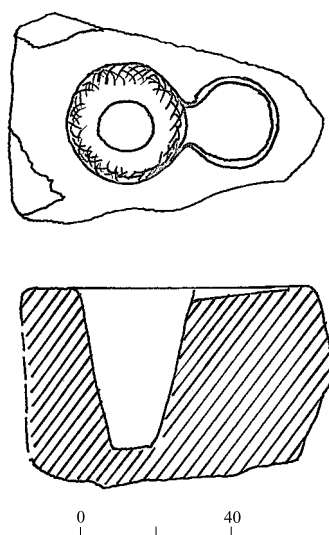


Fig. 15. Area E2, drawing and section of the pressing installation.

end was a carved round channel (diam. c. 0.2 m, 2 cm deep); its surface slightly inclined toward a deep, conical basin with a flat bottom (upper diam. c. 0.3 m, 0.4 m deep) carved into the installation's broad end. Such installations were used for small-scale, domestic production of liquids from a variety of wild and cultivated plants and fruits. A doorway (width c. 0.9 m) located in the southern wall of this room (W37) led into one of the rooms

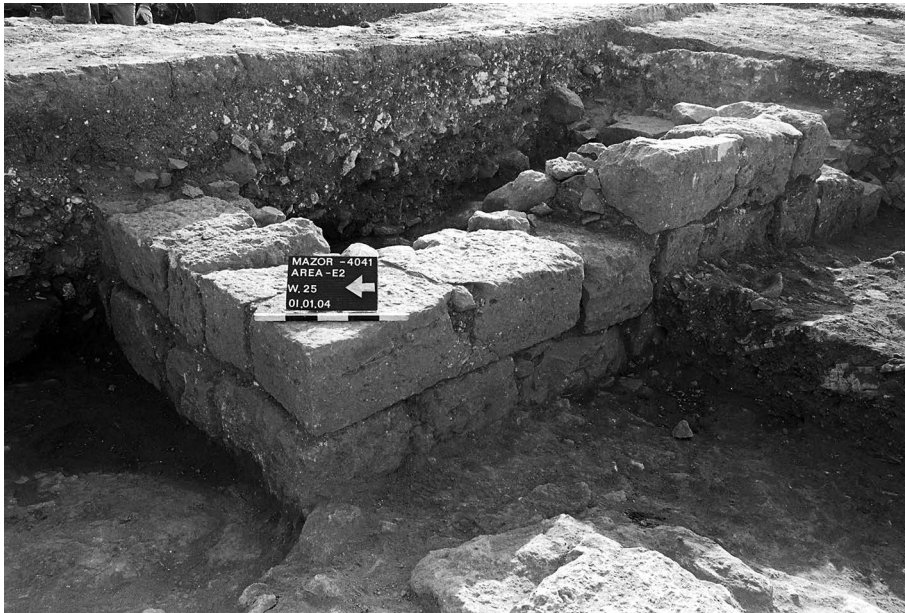


Fig. 16. Area E2, corner of a room to the south of the courtyard in the eastern unit of Byzantine Building II, looking east.

in the southern row. The floor of this square room (c. 2.8×2.8 m)—and probably also of most of the other nearby rooms—was either the leveled bedrock or a thin layer of beaten earth. At some later stage, a row of stones (W36) was built against the room's southern wall (W26), possibly to delimit a narrow space for a specific purpose (storage?). The room to the west (in the same row) was only partially excavated (Fig. 16); it was c. 1.5 m wide and it too may have been accessed via the room in the northern row (apparently through an opening in W22), though this detail is unclear.

The other room documented in the northern row (to the east of W31) was only partially excavated (c. 1.9 m wide; length unknown). A doorway (c. 0.9 m wide) with an *in situ* threshold stone in the room's southern wall (W35) led into another room in the southern row (Fig. 17). This was a narrow space (c. 1.4 m wide, length unknown) with a doorway (c. 0.6 m wide) and an *in situ* threshold stone in its eastern wall (W107; see Plan 2) leading to another room (see Fig. 8). There is no evidence that this room (c. 1.9 m wide, length unknown), which was the easternmost room in the southern row, could have been accessed via another space except for the narrow room to its west. However, due to its partial excavation and the rather low preservation of its northern wall, this possibility should not be ruled out altogether. It should be noted that although this room was built against the northwestern corner of Building I, its builders did not utilize the latter's eastern wall (W89/96) as the wall of this room but built an independent wall (W108) adjacent to the external face of W89/96. This detail indicates that the construction of Building I somewhat preceded that of Building II, or at least its southeastern part (see below).



Fig. 17. Area E2, W35, dividing some of the rooms south of the courtyard in the eastern unit of Byzantine Building II, looking east.

The western room of the northern row and the rooms of the southern row—with the exception of the easternmost room—were found covered by earth accumulations (L332, L341, L346, L367, L374, L375) that contained building stones belonging to the surrounding walls as well as colored *tesserae* used in flooring that testify that a second story had been built over these rooms. The finds retrieved from these loci included Byzantine pottery sherds (Figs. 26:4, 8, 10, 11, 13; 27:2, 4, 6, 7, 11; 28:3, 4), one partially restorable bowl and roof-tile fragments, one Hellenistic potsherd (Fig. 25:7), a coin of Constantius II (351–354 CE; from L332), a Late Roman coin (383–395 CE; from L346) (see Ariel, this volume: Cat. Nos. 6, 7), and two marble architectural items—a fragmentary narrow column and a partially damaged small Corinthian capital (Figs. 18; 32:6, 7). The latter two objects likely belonged to the same furnishing element, apparently an altar canopy (*ciborium*), which, together with the evidence of the colored mosaic floor, support the assumption that the second story housed a small chapel (see below). However, the fragmentary condition of most of the finds originating in these debris contexts, as well as the paucity of building



Fig. 18. Area E2, a fragmentary marble column in the debris covering one of the rooms south of the courtyard in the eastern unit of Byzantine Building II, looking north.

stones and roof tiles, indicate that this destruction was a human-initiated act accompanied by a systematic looting of most of the useable building materials. Based on the latest ceramic types represented in these assemblages, it seems that this destruction occurred after the mid- or late seventh century CE. Nonetheless, the existence of potsherds dated to not later than the sixth century CE in the same contexts allows identifying these sherds as part of the material that formed the bedding of the second story mosaic floor, which correspondingly can be dated to that period. No similar wall or second story debris was found over the easternmost room of the southern row, but only an earth fill (L529) containing Byzantine potsherds (Figs. 27:9; 28:1). It should be noted that the excavation along the joint corner of W35, W89/96 and W101 down to their foundations (L531) yielded a handful of potsherds from both the Hellenistic and Byzantine periods, which not only date these walls, but also provide more evidence for an earlier occupation phase in the area.

The excavation to the north of the stone-paved courtyard was very limited and the area was heavily disturbed by the construction of late Ottoman walls. Nevertheless, remains of two rooms belonging to Building II were found; both were paved with a mosaic floor. The first room was delimited by W50 in the north, W51 in the west and W52 in the south, its length being c. 4.6 m. Its mosaic floor was made of medium-sized white *tesserae* (c. 1.5 × 1.5 cm on average) laid diagonally to the room's axis, except for a decorative frame (made of the same *tesserae*) whose lines were parallel to the room's walls (Fig. 19). The second room, located to the west of the first, was delimited from the east by W51 and from the south by W27 of the western (storeroom) unit. At the corner of these two walls was an engaged pilaster, from



Fig. 19. Area E2, the eastern mosaic-paved room north of the courtyard in the eastern unit of Byzantine Building II, looking southeast; in rear, late Ottoman walls built directly over the floor.



Fig. 20. Area E2, the western mosaic-paved room north of the courtyard in the eastern unit of Byzantine Building II, looking northeast.

which only the first course was preserved. The room's partially preserved mosaic floor was made of medium-sized white *tesserae* like those used in the eastern room, though here a decorative pattern of diagonal stripes made of white, orange-brown and gray *tesserae* was also embedded (Fig. 20). Only scant finds were found in the earth fills that covered this area (L382), including a fragment of a Byzantine limestone column capital (Fig. 32:5).



Fig. 21. Area C, the Early Islamic(?) installation built over Byzantine W89/96, looking west.

As mentioned, the eastern part of the stone-paved courtyard was not excavated. However, based on the details known about the areas to its north and south, and the apparent discontinuity of Building I to the north of W101, it is reasonable to assume that additional rooms also existed to the east of the courtyard, some of which were possibly built adjacent to Building I to its north.

The Early Islamic Period

Although some of the pottery sherds found within and around Byzantine Buildings I and II can be dated to as late as the eighth century CE (at any rate, the appearance of these types began in the sixth or early seventh century CE), no definitive conclusion can be drawn concerning the continued use of these buildings after the end of the Byzantine period. In any case, remains and finds dated to a later stage of the Early Islamic period were found at only one location in Building I, adjacent to the eastern face of W96. They included a section of a floor (L525) made of stone slabs laid over a layer of hard earth, over which was an earth fill containing pottery sherds dated to the (late?) ninth to tenth/eleventh centuries CE and a fragment of a limestone incense burner (Figs. 29; 32:1). To the north of Floor 525 remains of an unidentified installation (apparently only its foundations) built of three short walls (W104–W106) adjacent to W96 (Fig. 21) were found. These walls were built at a level c. 0.3 m higher than Floor 525, and therefore, likely postdate it. The small area between the walls (L526) yielded a handful of potsherds generally dated to the Byzantine or Early Islamic period, but the date of these walls remains unclear.

The Mamluk–Early Ottoman Periods

A few pottery sherds dated to the Mamluk–early Ottoman periods (thirteenth–sixteenth/seventeenth centuries CE), and one Mamluk coin (see Ariel, this volume: Cat. No. 13),

were found in several locations associated with Byzantine Building I (cf. Gudovitch 1998:58, Fig. 107:7, 14), although architectural elements that can be dated to this period were found in only one place. The first feature is a wall (W80; c. 4 m long, 0.65–1.20 m wide, preserved height c. 1.3 m) abutting W88 from the north that seems to reflect two construction phases. The wall's lower courses were made of large, coarsely dressed stones and large fieldstones, and its uppermost preserved course was made of large well-dressed ashlar and small fieldstones (see Fig. 7); it seems that most of these stones originated from Building I. Close to the eastern foundations of W80, under stone debris (L511), potsherds that dated to the Byzantine and the late Mamluk–early Ottoman (fifteenth–sixteenth centuries CE) periods were found (Fig. 30:5); the latter included a partially restorable glazed bowl and an intact lamp.² The close proximity of this wall to Byzantine W89 and the fact that it was built nearly 1 m higher than the latter preclude the possibility that W80 also belonged to Building I. However, the Mamluk–early Ottoman ceramics found beside it allow dating its construction and initial use to these periods; apparently, W80 was rebuilt during the late Ottoman period, when it was incorporated into another structure (below). About 1 m to the east of W80 was another wall or foundation of a built element (W102; 0.6–1.2 wide, c. 0.55 m preserved height), constructed of large, coarsely dressed stones, apparently in secondary use. It abutted W88 in the south and continued for an unknown distance to the north (under later, Ottoman W83). The fact that W102 was founded over a thin earth layer that sealed Byzantine Floor 517, but predated the construction of W83 and other nearby late Ottoman remains, may allow attributing it—with caution—to the Mamluk or early Ottoman periods.

Also noteworthy is part of the stone debris (L513) found against the external (southern) foundations of W88. It contained potsherds from the Byzantine and Mamluk–early Ottoman periods, as well as the reused Ionic column capital (Fig. 32:4) and thus may indicate some building activity during the thirteenth–sixteenth centuries CE in this area as well.

Late Ottoman and British Mandate Periods

Like the picture reflected from Area M5, here too the second substantial phase of construction and activity dates to the late Ottoman and British Mandate periods. This phase and its remains were found within and around the two Byzantine buildings.

The Remains in the Area of Building I. In the eastern part of Byzantine Building I, part of a structure built to the north of Byzantine W88 was unearthed. Another part of this structure was exposed by Gudovitch (1998:58, Fig. 106). The structure's remains include three thick walls: W82 and W87 (= Gudovitch's W20; both are c. 1 m thick and preserved to a height

² Unfortunately, the lamp was stolen during the excavation and therefore it does not appear in the present report. However, typologically it belonged to the mold-made 'slipper' lamp type with an almond-shaped body, bent tongue handle and calligraphic and/or linear decoration. It is dated to the mid-thirteenth–fourteenth centuries CE or later (Avissar and Stern 2005:128, Fig. 53:2–4).

of c. 2 m) and Gudovitch's W17. Wall 82 and W87 formed a corner that was incorporated into the northern face of W88 (also c. 1 m thick). Gudovitch's W17 formed a corner with W87/W20 (this area was located to the east of the present excavation). The walls were built of medium-sized and large ashlar in secondary use and small fieldstones bonded with mud mortar. A small pilaster, originally supporting the structure's vaulted roof, was embedded in the inner corner of W82 and W87. This part of the structure was found covered by substantial stone debris containing pottery sherds, glass fragments, metal objects and small-arm ammunition that represents the latest activity in the area during the first decades of the twentieth century CE. A partially preserved floor (L506) made of fieldstones was found under this layer. Closer to the walls' corner, where the floor was not preserved, a trench (L516) was dug down to bedrock. On the bedrock was a layer of earth that was nearly sterile of finds, sealed by large fieldstones or coarsely-dressed stones. These stones were exposed c. 1 m under the foundations of W82 and W87; hence, they probably related to the walls' construction. However, the earth fill that formed the upper layers of L516 contained a mixture of sherds from the Byzantine, Mamluk–early Ottoman and the late Ottoman periods. These indicate the high degree of disturbance of pre-Ottoman remains in this area.

Remains of another room (c. 4.0 × 5.5 m) were found west of W82. This room either belonged to the same structure or formed an independent unit. Its northern wall (W83; c. 0.6 m wide, c. 0.7 m max. preserved height) abutted W82 in the east and formed a corner with W80 in the west. Like other contemporaneous nearby walls, W83 was built of small and medium-sized fieldstones and coarsely dressed stones bonded with mud mortar. A floor made of a thin layer of gray concrete (L500) was preserved in the room's eastern half; it abutted W82, W83 and W88 and was found covered with building stones and pieces of concrete, probably belonging to the upper courses and/or ceiling. The floor also abutted a small rectangular area (c. 0.9 × 1.0 m) built south of an unexcavated section of W83. This space was c. 0.3 m lower than the floor level and its low walls, of which only two (W85, W86) were preserved, were coated with a thick layer (2–5 cm) of white plaster. Based on parallels from traditional Palestinian rural architecture, it seems that this space was built near the interior of the room's doorway and was designated "for depositing shoes, for no Oriental would enter a house without first taking off his shoes" (Canaan 1933:61; cf. Fuchs 1998:158, Fig. 2:a). After the removal of Floor 500, under a packed fill layer (c. 0.3 m thick) of earth and small fieldstones, remains of an earlier floor (L505) were found. This floor was made of a thick layer of white plaster mixed with a large amount of organic material and abutted W82 and W88, and W90 from the north. Wall 90 seems to precede the construction of W83 and has a slightly different orientation than the latter. This thin wall (c. 0.4 wide), built of coarsely dressed stones, was preserved to a height of one course only; it was probably destroyed during the construction of W83, which expanded the room's area to the north. The earth fill between Floor 500 and Floor 505, and under Floor 505 (L507, L512) contained potsherds dated to not before the late Ottoman period, hence indicating that both building phases occurred within the course of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries CE.



Fig. 22. Area C, late Ottoman walls built against Byzantine W88, looking south.

Remains of three short walls (W91, W94, W109; 1.2–1.6 m long, c. 0.5 m wide, preserved height up to 1.3 m) are also attributed to an early phase of the late Ottoman–British Mandate structure/room. Wall 91 was built against the corner between W80 and Byzantine W88; W109 was built against the corner between W82 and W88; and W94 was built between them, adjacent to Byzantine W99 (Fig. 22). The similar dimensions and the location of these walls indicate that they were used to support the foundations of W80, W82 and especially older W88, prior to the construction of the late Ottoman room that abutted the latter.

Scant architectural remains from the late Ottoman and/or British Mandate period were found elsewhere in Area C. Two thin walls (W97, W98; c. 0.3–0.4 m wide, c. 0.9 m max. known height) were built next to each other, abutting the southern face of W88; both were made of small and medium-sized fieldstones and reused ashlar. The earth fill found between them (L520) contained only late Ottoman-, or more likely, British Mandate-period finds. Poor remains of three similar walls (W92, W95, W100) were found built against the western face of W89/W96. The first two walls were founded on bedrock and were covered by an earth fill (L514) containing a mixed assemblage of pottery sherds, the latest dating to the late Ottoman–British Mandate periods. The third wall seems to be of a similar date but was partially destroyed when a refuse pit (L523, L527) from the British Mandate period was dug here (see below). Another wall (W81; c. 0.6 m wide, c. 0.5 m preserved height), made of large coarsely dressed stones, was built against the external corner of W80 and W83 while overlying the older W89. The fact that it was preserved to a higher level than nearby Walls 92 and 95 indicates that it belonged to a somewhat later construction phase, probably from the British Mandate period.

Locus 521 was a thin concrete floor that was laid to the north of W96. The floor sealed the earlier Byzantine and Early Islamic remains here (see above), as well as a shallow pit (L524; c. 0.3 m deep) containing much ash and burned organic material. At the bottom of this (refuse?) pit, a fragment of a porcelain plate (not illustrated) was found. It dates this feature and Floor 521 to not before the end of the Ottoman period. Remains of another plaster floor were partially excavated by Gudovitch in 1993 (his L529) to the south of W88 (his W21), over which he found a complete ceramic jar, other vessel fragments and a perforated coin, all dated to the late Ottoman period (Gudovitch 1998:58, Figs. 106; 107:13, 17, 19). This floor was removed during the present excavation, revealing an earth fill (L509; c. 1 m deep) that contained pottery sherds and other finds from the Mamluk–early Ottoman and the late Ottoman and/or British Mandate periods (see, e.g., Fig. 31:1).

Finally, three refuse pits from these periods were found. The first (L502; c. 1 m deep) was delimited by W80 on the east and W81 on the north and overlaid the older W89. The second pit (L503; c. 0.75 m deep) was excavated within the entire area of an isolated square dug to the west of W89/W96; the pit sealed a thin earth layer containing Byzantine potsherds that covered the bedrock. The third pit (L523, L527; c. 1.3 m deep), which may be a continuation of Pit 503, was found slightly to the north, against the external face of W96. All three pits contained substantial numbers of discarded artifacts—pottery (including porcelain) sherds, fragmentary and complete glass vessels, metal objects, leather pieces, animal bones and one coin generally dated to 1909/10 CE (see Ariel, this volume: Cat. No. 19). These artifacts seem to represent the latest occupation phase of the village of al-Muzayri‘ah during British Mandate times; the great majority of these finds, however, were not kept.

Remains in the Area of Building II. As mentioned, some of the remains of the Byzantine-period building were directly damaged by the construction of walls over them during late Ottoman–British Mandate times, while the widespread looting of the building’s stones, both for architectural reuse and lime production, can also be attributed to these periods. Most of these late walls seem to belong to one large building (c. 11.5 × 22.5 m) oriented northeast–southwest, which was delimited by W53 in the north, W41 in the south, W9 in the west and W20 in the east (Fig. 23). Poorly preserved internal walls attributed to this building include W13, W23 and W54, which abutted W9 or its assumed line. All these walls were 0.6–0.8 m wide and were built of small to large fieldstones and some (reused?) coarsely dressed stones.

As the earlier rock-cut cistern that served Byzantine Building II was located along the line of W9, it was incorporated within the area of the late Ottoman building. For this purpose, part of the northern section of W9 was semicircular, encircling the cistern mouth from the west. It is unknown whether the cistern continued functioning for its original purpose during the late Ottoman period, though in British Mandate times, it was used as a toilet, indicated by a typical contemporaneous toilet seat in the form of a concrete plate with two protruding footholds and a central keyhole-shaped opening covering the cistern’s mouth (Fig. 24). This find is striking, as in Ottoman and British Mandate times, built-in toilets were essentially a characteristic of urban architecture and would have rarely been found in villages (see



Fig. 23. Area E2, the southeastern corner of the late Ottoman building built upon the walls of Byzantine Building II, looking northwest.



Fig. 24. Area E2, the rock-cut cistern (later a toilet) encircled by late Ottoman W9, looking southeast.

Canaan 1933:68–70). The toilet area was enclosed from the south and the east by two short walls (W55, W56; the former abutted W9 from the east); altogether, this area functioned as a small chamber that provided privacy for its users.

Some architectural units/rooms were also built outside but adjacent to this building, as indicated by the scant remains of W54 abutting W53 from the north and by the remains of two small rooms (c. 1.9 m and 2.5 m wide, respectively; length unknown) built against the eastern face of W20. The walls of these rooms (W18, W19, W21) were built directly over the stone slab pavement of the courtyard of Building II's eastern unit (see Figs. 10, 12). Similarly, long W20 was founded mostly over the same stone floor and over the mosaic pavement of the eastern room to the north of the courtyard (see Figs. 13, 19). Unfortunately, no clear floor levels attributed to the late Ottoman–British Mandate building were identified (apart from the toilet area in the northwestern corner, where the leveled bedrock functioned as the contemporaneous floor). This is likely due to the proximity of the remains to the surface and the dismantling of the village of al-Muzayri'ah after 1948. The earth fills found in association to these walls (e.g., L326, L348) were usually mixed and contained, *inter alia*, a small number of pottery sherds dating from the nineteenth to the early/mid-twentieth centuries CE. Noteworthy is a near complete clay smoking pipe (Fig. 31:5) from the eighteenth or nineteenth century found close to the foundations of the eastern room east of W20 (in L348), which provides a *terminus post quem* for the construction of this room (and apparently the entire building). Also noteworthy are two coins dated to the seventeenth–eighteenth centuries and to 1861–1876 CE, originating in two topsoil loci (L306, L323) that covered the area (see Ariel, this volume: Cat. Nos. 14, 17).

THE FINDS

POTTERY

The ceramic finds retrieved from the excavations represent several periods of occupation: late Hellenistic, Early Roman, Byzantine, Early Islamic, Mamluk–early Ottoman and late Ottoman–British Mandate. However, only the finds from the Byzantine to the British Mandate periods are associated with contemporaneous architectural remains or other features (such as refuse pits), while the pottery from the late Hellenistic and Early Roman periods originated mostly in secondary contexts of later (usually Byzantine) foundation fills. The more or less continuous occupation of the site, at least since the Byzantine period onward, and the repeated (re)use and dismantling of the same structures throughout this time span, as late as the mid-twentieth century CE, have resulted in a lack of *in situ* assemblages, a dearth of chronologically-homogeneous deposits, and the fragmentary nature of the ceramic finds associated with the excavated contexts. Therefore, the following discussion presents a selection of pottery from all the above-mentioned periods, oriented typo-chronologically rather than contextually.

The Hellenistic and Early Roman Periods

Bowls, Plates and Krater

The open tableware is represented by several late Hellenistic forms. The first is a local imitation of imported fishplates, characterized by an everted wall, a downturned rim and a thin, matt black slip on the interior and on part of the exterior (Fig. 25:1). These bowls, ubiquitous throughout the country, date to the second–early first centuries BCE (see Levine 2003:85–86, Fig. 6.3:45–49). A related plate form with an infolded rim and a matt brown-black slip (Fig. 25:2) is typical of the late second–first centuries BCE (Geva 2003:145, Pl. 5.10:37). Another form is a bowl with a matt reddish brown slip on the interior and the exterior (Fig. 25:3), which is one of the most common bowl types in the country in late Hellenistic and Early Roman periods (second century BCE–first century CE; Levine 2003:84–85, Fig. 6.2:37–44). Related to the former is a deep, carinated bowl with an external matt black slip (Fig. 25:4) which originally bore two horizontal, pinched-bow handles below the rim;

Fig. 25 ▶

No.	Type	Area	Locus	Reg. No.	Description
1	Plate	E2	348	634	Yellowish, matt black slip on int. and ext.
2	Plate	E2	369	683	Yellowish brown, matt brown-black slip on int. and below rim
3	Bowl	E2	365	662	Buff, matt reddish brown slip on int. and ext. and burnished brown-black slip on rim
4	Bowl	E2	369	683	Yellowish brown, matt black slip on ext.
5	Bowl	M5	31	157	Pinkish
6	Krater	E2	333	584	Orange
7	Casserole	E2	341	696	Orange-brown
8	Casserole	M5	24	130	Orange-brown, fired to gray-brown from ext.
9	Cooking pot	M5	24	130	Orange-brown
10	Cooking pot	M5	24	138	Orange-brown
11	Storage jar	E2	369	683	Yellowish buff
12	Storage jar	E2	311	526	Buff
13	Storage jar	E2	310	537	Orange
14	Storage jar	M5	25	131	Pinkish orange
15	Storage jar	M5	31	141	Reddish brown, fired to yellowish red
16	Jug	M5	24	130	Buff
17	Juglet	E2	301	511	Orange, traces of red slip on ext. and on rim
18	Juglet	E2	311	526	Pinkish, fired to buff
19	Unguentarium	E2	369	584	Reddish brown, micaceous
20	Lamp	E2	365	662	Pinkish orange, traces of reddish slip on ext.
21	Lamp	M5	24	142	Orange

this type is usually dated to the second century BCE (Levine 2003:86–87, Fig. 6.3:50–52). The bowl with rounded walls and a thickened rim (Fig. 25:5) is dated to the first century BCE–first century CE (Bar-Nathan 2002:89–90, Pl. 15:241). A larger form is a krater with a triangular internally grooved rim (Fig. 25:6), like vessels dated to the Early Roman period (e.g., Bar-Nathan 2006:124–125, Pl. 23:1).

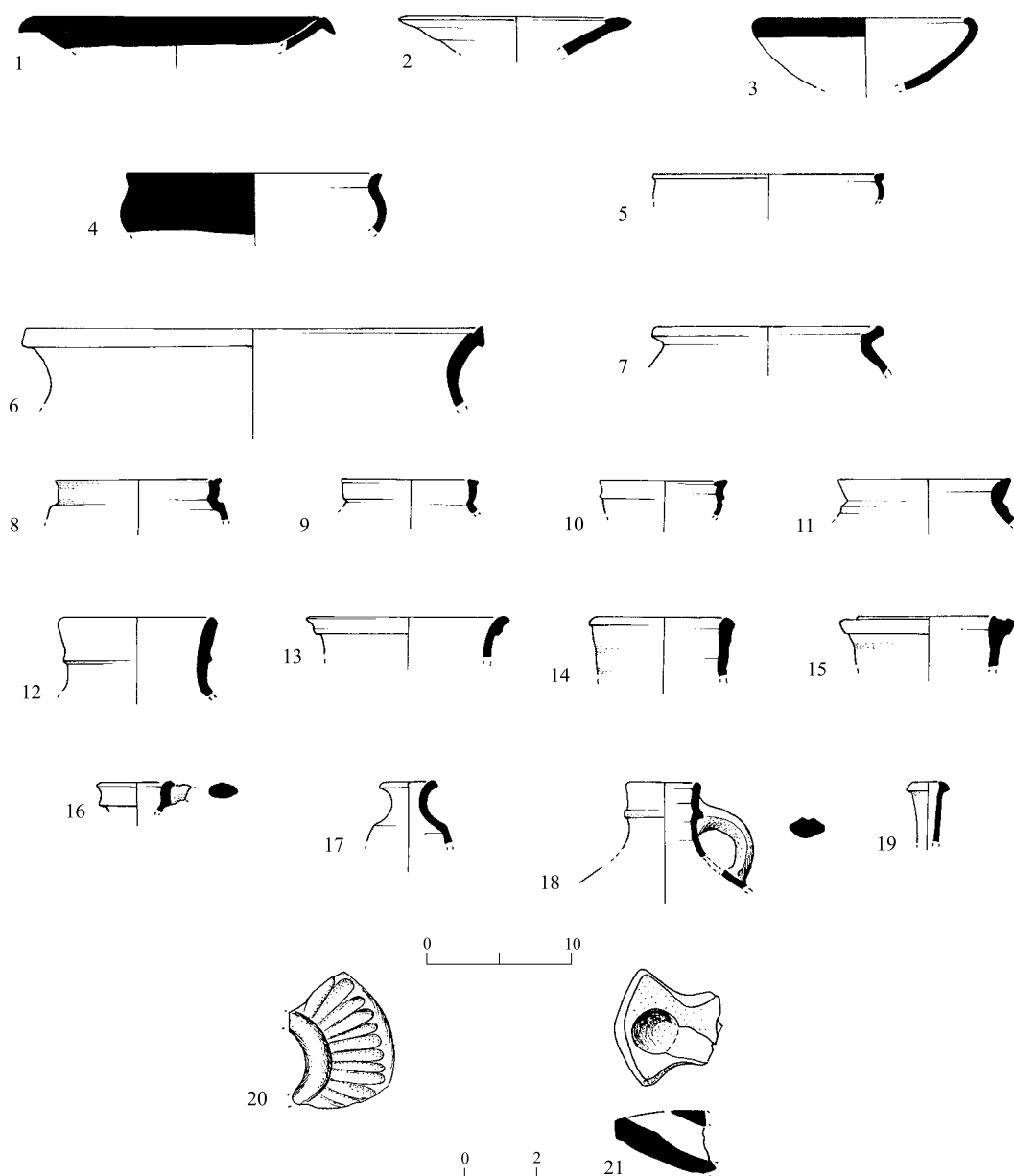


Fig. 25. Hellenistic and Early Roman-period pottery.

Cooking Vessels

The late Hellenistic-period cooking wares are represented by a casserole with a concave, everted rim and the beginning of a loop handle underneath (Fig. 25:7), dated to the second and early first centuries BCE (see Levine 2003:95, Fig. 6.6:77). Another casserole with a very short slightly everted neck, a grooved rim, a carinated shoulder and, when complete, a round/squat body (Fig. 25:8) is dated to the Early Roman period, apparently to the mid-first–early second centuries CE (Bar-Nathan 2006:166–167, Pl. 30:158). Two cooking pot types were also found: one—the so-called “Herodian” cooking pot, from the late first century BCE to the early second century CE—has a short, vertical neck and a triangular rim (Fig. 25:9; Taxel and HersHKovitz 2011:350, Fig. 6.8, Pl. 248:3–5, 7–11) and the other, dated to the first and second centuries CE, has a convex neck and an out-folded rim (Fig. 25:10; Taxel and HersHKovitz 2011:351, Pl. 249:14).

Storage Jars

The earliest storage-jar form represented here has a very short, everted neck and plain rim (Fig. 25:11). Although this form already appears in the Persian period, based on its context, this specimen should be dated to Hellenistic times, apparently to the second–early first centuries BCE (see Geva 2003:122, Pls. 5.1:8; 5.2:18, 19, 24; 5.4:5, 13, 15; 5.10:1, 2). More typical of the late Hellenistic/Hasmonean and early Herodian periods (first century BCE) is a jar with a vertical or slightly everted neck and a tall square rim (Fig. 25:12; Bar-Nathan 2006:51–52, Pl. 4:14–17). Of a similar date is a jar with a broad vertical neck and an out-folded rim (Fig. 25:13; see Geva 2003:124–125, Pls. 5.8:6, 7; 5.9:9). Typical Early Roman (late first century BCE–early second century CE) forms are a jar with a vertical neck and a thickened rim (Fig. 25:14), representing the most common bag-shaped jar type of the Early Roman period (Taxel and HersHKovitz 2011:353–354, Fig. 6.13, Pls. 252:3–6; 253), and a related type with a narrow ledge rim (Fig. 25:15; Taxel and HersHKovitz 2011:354, Pl. 254:9).

Jug and Juglets

The jug with a cup-shaped rim (Fig. 25:16) is dated to the late Hellenistic and Herodian periods (Bar-Nathan 2002:42–43, Pl. 9:69). The red-slipped juglet with a carinated shoulder, a short neck and an everted rim (Fig. 25:17) is dated to the second century BCE (Guz-Zilberstein 1995:307, Fig. 6.28:9–12; Levine 2003:110, Fig. 6.13:132). Another jug type has a vertical neck with a plain rim, a ridge mid-neck and a ridged loop handle (Fig. 25:18); it is dated to the first–early second centuries CE (Bar-Nathan 2006:109, Pl. 20:37). A few fusiform *unguentaria*, typical mainly of the second century BCE, were also found. The example in Fig. 25:19 is characterized by a narrow neck and a triangular rim and is made of a micaceous clay fired at a high-temperature, which points to its foreign (Asia Minor?) origin (for possible imported *unguentaria* found at Dor, see Guz-Zilberstein 1995:304–306, Figs. 6.26:21, 23; 6.27:9).

Lamps

Two lamp types are attributed to this period. One is a mold-made Judean radial lamp with a matt red slip (Fig. 25:20), dated to the first century BCE (see Barag and HersHKovitz 1994:14–16, 21–22, Figs. 1a, 2), and the other is a wheel-made lamp with a bow-shaped nozzle (Fig. 25:21), typical of the Early Roman period (Barag and HersHKovitz 1994:43, 47, Figs. 5–8).

The Byzantine Period³*Bowls*

The open Byzantine-period tableware is represented by both local bowls originating in workshops in central and southern Palestine and by imported red-slipped bowls manufactured in western Asia Minor, Cyprus and Egypt. The earliest local type represents the rouletted bowls produced in the Jerusalem area during the Late Roman and Byzantine periods. This type has a carinated wall, a flattened rim with a ridge underneath and often, external rouletting on the wall (Fig. 26:1, 2); it is dated to the early third–early fifth centuries CE (Magness 1993:185–187, Form 1; 2005:105). Another coarser bowl form (Fig. 26:3) has an everted in-folded rim. These bowls were produced in the western Negev (Fabian and Goldfus 2004:14*, n. 3) and were typical mainly of the northern and western Negev and the southern coast in the sixth and seventh centuries CE (see Taxel 2009:96, Fig. 3.14:2, with references therein). The bowl in Fig. 26:4 has a carinated wall, a plain rim and shallow diagonal incisions on the exterior lower wall. Similar bowls from other sites in Israel (Taxel 2009:96, Fig. 3.23:7) were dated to the sixth and seventh centuries CE. Another local form, also from the Jerusalem region, is a Fine Byzantine Ware (FBW) bowl with a narrow, downturned ledge rim (Fig. 26:5). It is dated to the mid-seventh to ninth/tenth centuries CE (Magness 1993:198–200, Form 2C); however, the mixed context in which it was found makes it hard to conclude whether this bowl represents the last stage of the site's Byzantine phase or a later stage in the Early Islamic period, which in the present excavation is represented by only a handful of sherds (see below).

The largest group of imported Late Roman Red Ware (LRRW) bowls from the site is the Late Roman C/Phocaeen Red Slip (PRS) Ware, originating in western Asia Minor (see Hayes 1980). The most common type, with a square and sometimes rouletted rim (Fig. 26:6–10), is dated to the first half of the sixth century CE (Hayes 1972:329–338, Form 3F). The most complete specimen (Fig. 26:10), apparently located on the second story of Building II at the time of its destruction, bears on its inner base an impression in the shape

³ The term Byzantine is used here to encompass the period that includes virtually the entire seventh century CE, namely the beginning of the Early Islamic era (or early Umayyad period) as well. This is not only for reasons of convenience, but also since it cannot firmly be concluded that the site's existence in its 'Byzantine' form (namely, as represented by the full usage of Buildings I and II) continued long after the mid-seventh century CE.

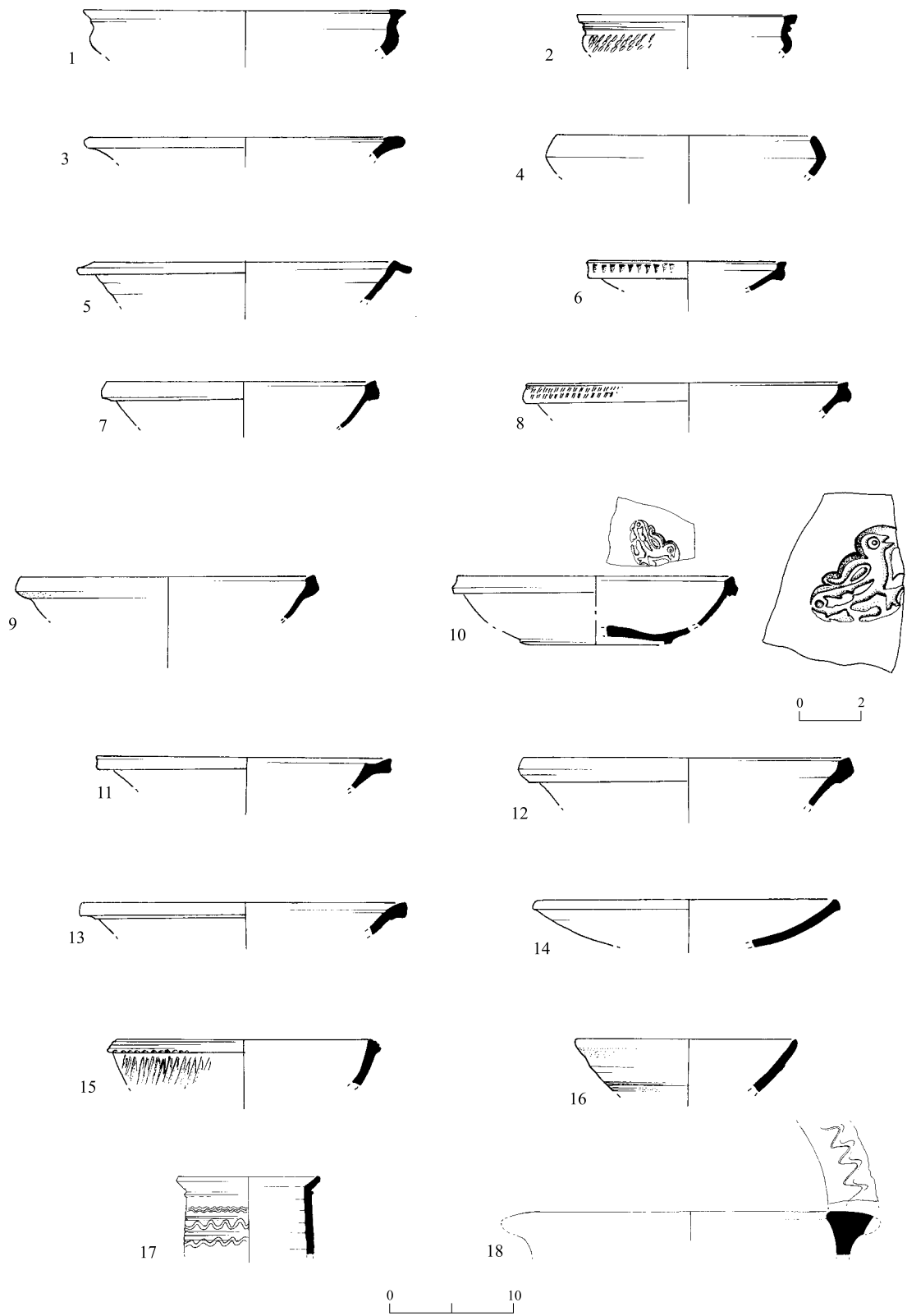


Fig. 26. Byzantine-period bowls and basins.

◀ Fig. 26

No.	Type	Area	Locus	Reg. No.	Description
1	Bowl	E2	310	537	Yellowish
2	Bowl	M5	33	149	Light orange, ext. rouletting
3	Bowl	E2	367	669	Orange-brown, fired to yellowish
4	Bowl	E2	374	688	Yellowish brown, ext. incisions
5	Bowl	E2	336	668	Orange, burnished from ext.
6	Bowl	E2	370	672	Reddish brown, reddish slip on int. and ext., rouletting on rim
7	Bowl	E2	370	665	Orange-brown, reddish slip on int. and ext.
8	Bowl	E2	341	660	Orange, reddish slip on int. and ext., brown slip and rouletting on rim
9	Bowl	E2	374	688	Reddish orange, reddish slip on int. and ext.
10	Bowl	E2	341	660	Reddish orange, reddish slip on int. and ext.
11	Bowl	E2	341	696	Orange, orange slip on int. and ext.
12	Bowl	C	521	1117	Orange-brown, reddish slip on int. and ext.
13	Bowl	E2	346	632	Reddish brown, reddish brown slip on int. and ext., brown slip on rim
14	Bowl	M5	33	159	Brown, orange-brown slip on int. and ext.
15	Bowl	C	516	1068	Orange, reddish orange slip on int. and ext. and ext. rouletting
16	Bowl	M5	31	157	Dark brown, reddish core, micaceous, reddish slip on int. and ext.
17	Basin	C	517	1108	Light orange, ext. incised decoration
18	Basin	E2	308	599	Yellowish brown, light gray core; incised decoration on rim

a bird facing right (cf. Hayes 1972:361, Fig. 77). A much less frequent bowl type has a slightly concave ledge rim (Fig. 26:11); it is dated by Hayes to c. 460–500 CE (1972:399, Form 5A). The latest PRS types found in the excavation have an everted broad rim, either knobbed or flattened (Fig. 26:12, 13) and are dated to the late sixth–early seventh centuries CE and to the first half of the seventh century CE, respectively (Hayes 1972:343–346, Forms 10A and 10C).

Another class of imported bowls, produced in Cyprus or—as was recently suggested—in western Asia Minor (Jackson et al. 2012), is the Cypriot Red Slip (CRS) or Late Roman D (LRD) ware. The earliest type represented in the local assemblage has a thickened, rounded rim (Fig. 26:14) and is dated to the late fourth until the third quarter of the fifth centuries CE (Hayes 1972:372–373, Form 1). A somewhat later form, dated to the late fifth to early sixth century CE, has a triangular, grooved rim and shallow diagonal rouletting on the wall's exterior (Fig. 26:15; Hayes 1972:373–376, Form 2). Finally, one example was found of a red-slipped bowl made of typical Nilotic clay, pointing to its Egyptian origin (Fig. 26:16). Its everted walls, pointed rim and mainly, the sandwich-like appearance of the sherd's section point to it being of the Egyptian Red Slip (ERS) B class, dated to the fifth and sixth centuries CE (Hayes 1972:397–399; Rodziewicz 1976:50–51, Pl. 17:K1, K2; for local parallels, see Johnson 2008a:86, Nos. 268, 269).

Only a few examples of larger and deeper open forms were found and are represented here by two types. The first is a deep bowl/basin with an upturned ledge rim with a ridge beneath and slightly everted walls decorated with horizontal and wavy incisions (Fig. 26:17). It belongs to the Arched-Rim Basins, apparently to a variant dated to the sixth–seventh/early eighth centuries CE (Magness 1993:206–207, Form 2A). The second type is a basin (possibly a mortarium) made of a highly coarse, yellowish-brown ware mixed with numerous white and gray/black grits, primarily crushed seashells. It has a broad, everted rim decorated with wavy incisions and everted walls (Fig. 26:18). This type is dated to the fourth–seventh centuries CE, and apparently originated in the Amrit/Tartus region on the north Syrian coast, where it was produced alongside the large coarse-ware pithoi, familiar from many coastal (and some inland) sites in the country (Reynolds 2003:544, Fig. 5:14). Local parallels for similar basins are known, especially from the north of the country and from the central coastal plain (e.g., Calderon 2000:111, 150, Pls. 9:58, 59; 25:79; Johnson 2008b:64–65, Nos. 734–736).

Cooking Wares

Several types of open and closed cooking wares were found. The former includes casseroles with a cutaway rim, rounded, ribbed walls and horizontal, twisted handles (Fig. 27:1). These were common throughout the Late Roman to Early Islamic periods (see Magness 1993:211–213, Form 1). Among the finds was a ribbed casserole lid with a (missing) knob handle (Fig. 27:2) that dates to the same period (Magness 1993:215). The closed cooking pots are represented by three types. The first has a very short vertical neck and a triangular, in-turned rim (Fig. 27:3). It resembles a type from the Jerusalem region that dates to the fifth/

Fig. 27 ▶

No.	Type	Area	Locus	Reg. No.	Description
1	Casserole	E2	371	679	Reddish brown
2	Casserole lid	E2	341	696	Reddish brown
3	Cooking pot	M5	33	156	Reddish brown
4	Cooking pot	E2	332	633	Reddish brown
5	Cooking pot	M5	33	149	Reddish brown
6	Storage jar	E2	367	663	Reddish brown
7	Storage jar	E2	375	701	Orange, fired to yellowish
8	Storage jar	M5	33	156	Reddish brown, fired to greenish
9	Storage jar	C	529	1127	Yellowish
10	Storage jar	C	521	1117	Yellowish
11	Storage jar	E2	341	696	Brown
12	Amphora	C	517	1108	Reddish brown, micaceous
13	Pithos	C	501	1005	Light brown
14	Pithos	M5	33	156	Reddish brown

sixth to the late seventh/early eighth centuries CE (Magness 1993:219, Form 4A), though closer parallels from the coastal plain were dated to as early as the fourth–fifth centuries CE (e.g., Calderon 2011:73*, Fig. 6:17). A related type, with an out-folded triangular rim (Fig. 27:4), seems to date to the fifth–seventh centuries CE (Magness 1993:219–220, Form 4B). Of similar date is the third type, with a low slightly everted neck and a thickened rim (Fig. 27:5; Magness 1993:219–220, Form 4C).

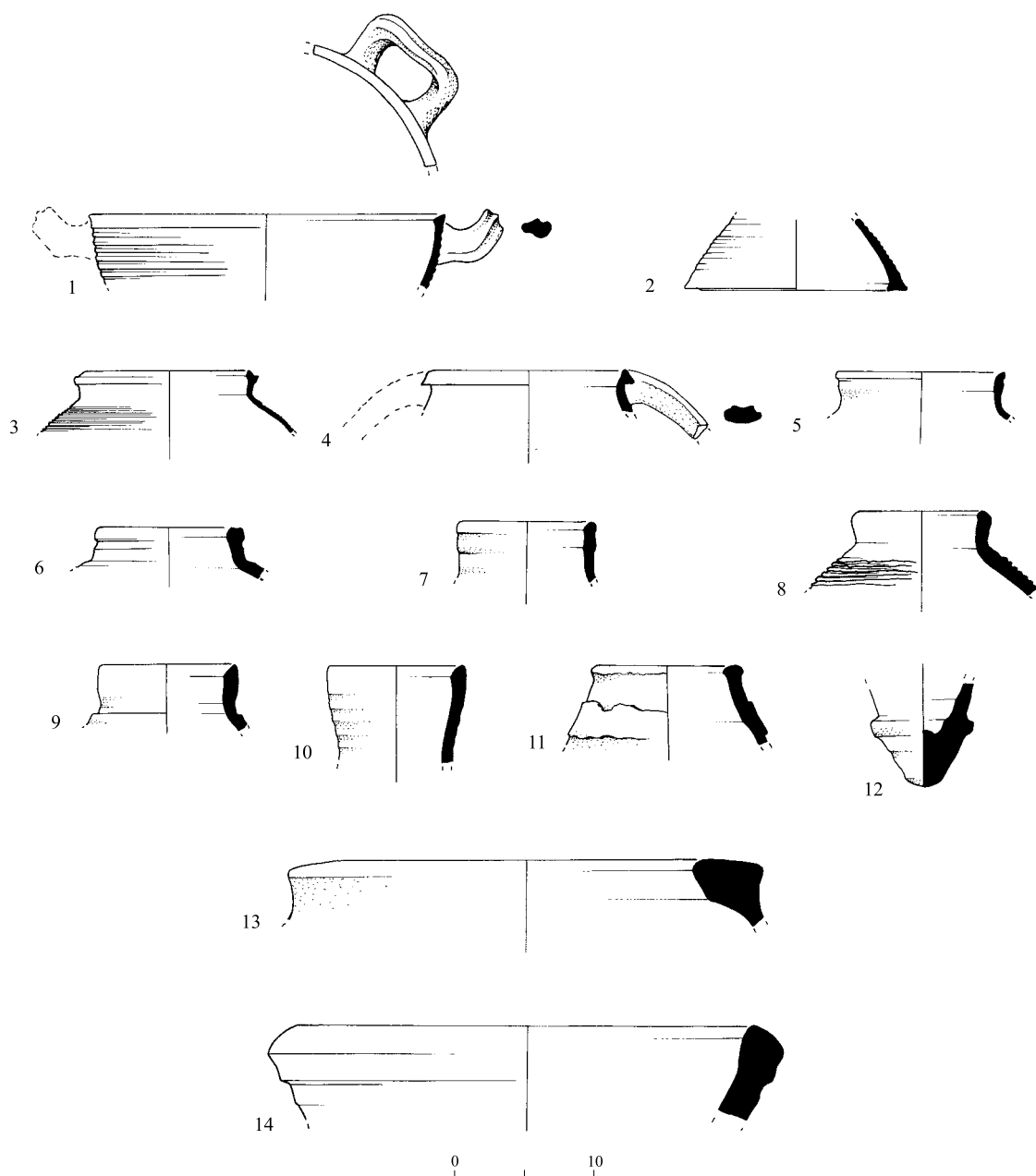


Fig. 27. Byzantine-period cooking, storage and transport wares.

Storage and Transport Wares

The storage and transport vessels attributed to the Byzantine period include local storage jars and amphorae, one imported amphora type and two types of imported pithoi. The most common storage-jar type found at the site is a variant of the Palestinian coastal bag-shaped jar, characterized by a short, vertical neck, a thickened rim and ribbing covering the entire body from shoulder to base (Fig. 27:6–8). It is dated from the fifth through the seventh centuries CE (Riley 1975:26–27, Type 1B), if not slightly later, and is especially widespread in the central coastal plain (the Sharon), the northern part of the southern coastal plain (as far south as the area of Yavne), the Samaria foothills and the Carmel (Taxel 2005:70, Fig. 41:19, 20; Tal and Taxel 2015:147, Fig. 2.8:1).

Another group of local bag-shaped jars originated in Judea and the Jerusalem area, and is represented by two variants. The first has a short, vertical neck with a ridge at its base (Fig. 27:9), while the other has a higher, slightly convex neck (Fig. 27:10). Both are dated from the late sixth century CE onward, apparently at least until the tenth century CE (Magness 1993:226–230, Forms 5A and 6A; see also Arnon 2008:159, 222, 252, Types 822, 831, 841). The last local form is the so-called Gaza amphora or Late Roman Amphora 4, which was manufactured at numerous locations along the southern coast. These jars, dated from the late sixth/seventh centuries to the eighth century CE, are represented here by their latest variant (Fig. 27:11), having a plain rim that continues the line of the shoulder (Majcherek 1995:169, Form 4; Pieri 2005:106–107, Forms B2 and B3).

The only imported Byzantine-period storage/transport vessel found in the excavations is a Late Egyptian Amphora 3 type, here represented by its typical solid, pointed base (Fig. 27:12). These amphorae were produced at several locations along the Nile Valley between the late fourth/fifth and seventh/eighth centuries CE, though they are rarely found outside Egypt (see Egloff 1977:114, Type E172; Konstantinidou 2012:186–189, Fig. 3.60).

Two types of exceptionally large storage containers—pithoi—were found, each represented by a single example. The first pithos has a wide holemouth opening with a thick rim (Fig. 27:13). It belongs to a well-known type whose geographical distribution in neighboring regions and petrographic analyses point to its origin either along the northern Syrian coast or in Cyprus (see Reynolds 2003:544, Fig. 5:14). Its date falls between the fifth/sixth to the early eighth centuries CE. In Israel, it is especially common in harbor towns—from Caesarea in the north to Yavne-Yam in the south (see Ayalon 1991).

The second pithos has a broad, everted neck with a square-sectioned rim (Fig. 27:14). Similar pithoi were found in a seventh-century CE context in Cyprus (Catling 1972:13, 66–67, Fig. 6:P1, P11, P16, P323). Other pithoi, with somewhat different rim profiles, have been found in an early- to mid-seventh century CE context at Ras el-Bassit on the Syrian coast, one of which has been determined as a local ware (Mills and Beaudry 2010:857, Fig. 4a:N32, N34), and at Caesarea, where its ware was identified as similar to that of the north Syrian mortaria (Johnson 2008b:54, No. 554).

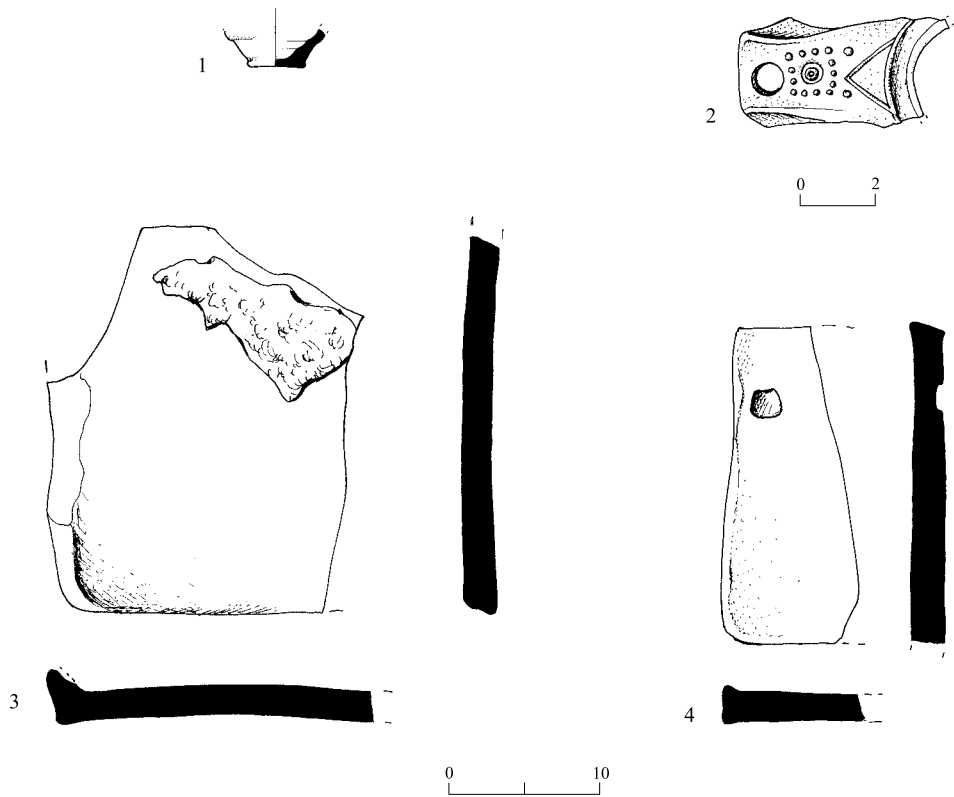


Fig. 28. Byzantine-period pottery: a stopper, a lamp and roof tiles.

No.	Type	Area	Locus	Reg. No.	Description
1	Stopper	C	529	1127	Yellowish orange
2	Lamp	E2	371	674	Orange-brown
3	Roof tile	E2	332	582	Orange-brown
4	Roof tile	E2	375	682	Yellowish brown, potter's mark

Stopper

One small, concave lid/stopper with a flattened base was found (Fig. 28:1), which may be related to the well-known bowl-shaped lids/stoppers from the Byzantine and Early Islamic periods (see Magness 1993:247–248, Form 1).

Lamp

Only one mold-made lamp fragment was attributed to the Byzantine period. It seems to have had a large filling hole surrounded by two ridges and a straight-end nozzle. The nozzle's decoration is composed of a protruding triangle and 15 protruding dots surrounding a

concentric circle (Fig. 28:2). No exact parallels have been found for this lamp, though it seems to be closest to Sussman's Gezer 2 lamp type, dated to the fifth–sixth centuries CE, found mainly in the central Judean foothills (Sussman 2007:58–63, Fig. 5:34, 35).

Roof Tiles (Fig. 28:3, 4)

A few fragmentary roof tiles were found within Building II, testifying to the roofing method of at least part of its area (the eastern wing?). They include mostly lower tiles (*tegulae*), some bearing traces of white plaster. One tile (Fig. 28:4) has a square potter's mark.

The Early Islamic Period

Bowls and a Basin

The homogeneous but modest Early Islamic ceramic assemblage found in Area C (L525) included both plain and glazed open bowls and a basin. One bowl has slightly carinated walls and a flattened rim (Fig. 29:1), and is known from assemblages dated to the eighth century CE onward (e.g., Cohen Finkelstein 1997:31*, Fig. 2:5). The glazed bowls are represented here by a Fine Lead Glazed Ware bowl with everted walls and a flaring rim. This bowl has a thin whitish slip on the interior that forms a background for green splashes covered by a thin transparent yellowish glaze (Fig. 29:2). This ware is dated to the ninth–eleventh centuries CE (see Avissar 1996:78–82, Types 6–9, Figs. XIII.6–XIII.9, Photographs XIII.7–XIII.16). The basin type represented here has an inward thickened rim and a combed decoration on its exterior wall (Fig. 29:3). It seems to be related to Magness' (1993:210–211) Incurved-Rim Basins, dated to the eighth–tenth centuries CE.

Cooking and Storage Wares

The number of cooking and storage ware types found in L525 was similarly limited. The former included two globular cooking pots, one with a very short vertical neck, a triangular rim and a carinated shoulder (Fig. 29:4) and the other, with a vertical thickened rim (Fig. 29:5); both are dated to the late ninth to the eleventh centuries CE (see Avissar 1996:132–133, Figs. XIII.89, XIII.92; Arnon 2008:41, 43, 218–219, 249–250, Types 732, 741). The only storage-jar type represented in the assemblage of the Early Islamic period has a high in-turned neck and a thickened concave rim (Fig. 29:6). This jar, fired at a high-temperature, is the latest form of the northern Palestinian bag-shaped jar, which probably appeared as early as the ninth century CE but continued in use at least until the eleventh century CE. It is found mainly in northern sites in Israel and in northern Transjordan (e.g., Stacey 2004:126, Fig. 5.34:3, 4), but also at major sites in the central part of the country, such as Caesarea (e.g., Arnon 2008:154–157, 219–221, 305–307, Types 821, 831, 851).

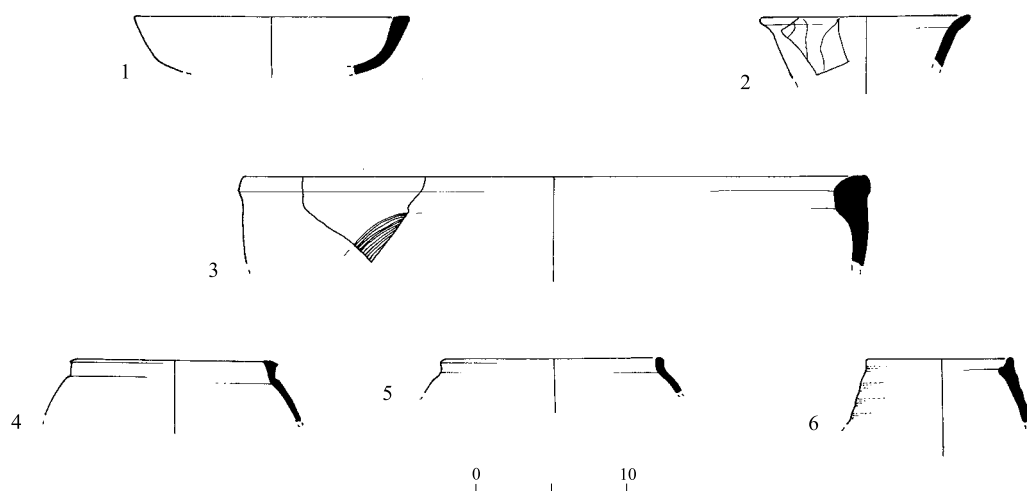


Fig. 29. Early Islamic-period pottery.

No.	Type	Locus	Reg. No.	Description
1	Bowl	525	1101	Reddish brown
2	Bowl	525	1099	Buff, splashes of green on colorless glaze over white slip on int. and below rim
3	Basin	525	1094	Light brown, ext. combing
4	Cooking pot	525	1101	Reddish brown
5	Cooking pot	525	1101	Reddish brown
6	Storage jar	525	1101	Gray, fired to orange

The Mamluk–Early Ottoman Period

Bowls

The open forms attributed to the Mamluk period include both plain (unglazed) and glazed bowls. A typical plain type is a handmade bowl with everted walls, a flattened rim and an external red burnished slip (Fig. 30:1). Handmade bowls (both plain and painted) were extremely common in local contexts especially between the thirteenth and the sixteenth/seventeenth centuries CE, namely in the Mamluk and Early Ottoman periods (see Avissar and Stern 2005:88, 90, Fig. 38, Pl. 25; Walker 2009).

The glazed bowls from this period are represented by both local and imported types. The former includes a bowl with everted walls, a flattened thumb-decorated rim and a green lead glaze over a white slip on the interior (Fig. 30:2). Such bowls were widespread between the second half of the thirteenth and the fifteenth centuries CE, though their production continued throughout the Ottoman period with some technological and morphological changes (Avissar and Stern 2005:12, 14, Figs. 4, 5, Pls. 3, 4; Walker 2009:41–42). Another local bowl type has vertical upper walls, a slightly everted rim and white slip-painted decoration under a transparent yellow glaze on the interior, rendering the painted design

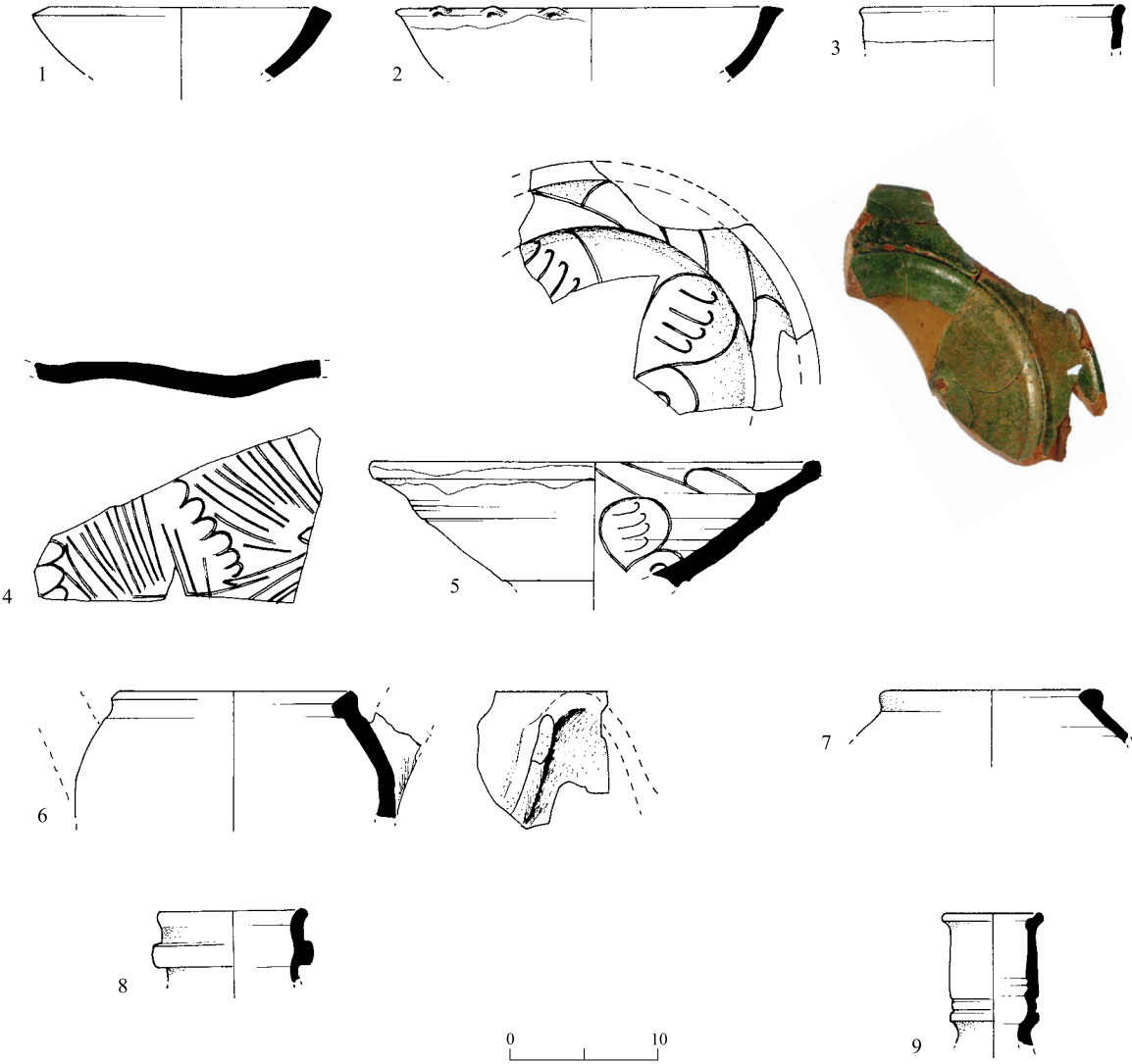


Fig. 30. Mamluk–early Ottoman-period pottery.

No.	Type	Locus	Reg. No.	Description
1	Bowl	501	1035	Yellowish orange, gray core, red burnished slip on int. and rim
2	Bowl	509	1041	Light orange, whitish slip on int. and ext. and green glaze on int.
3	Bowl	513	1058	Reddish, fired to yellowish, slip-painted decoration under transparent yellow glaze on int. and below rim
4	Bowl	511	1044	Light orange, micaceous, splashes of yellow and green glaze with sgraffito over white slip on int.
5	Bowl	511	1044	Reddish brown, micaceous, green glaze with sgraffito over white slip on int. and below rim
6	Cooking pot	513	1058	Yellowish, gray core, burnished from ext.
7	Cooking pot	513	1048	Reddish brown, splashes of purplish brown glaze on ext. and rim
8	Storage jar	509	1041	Grayish
9	Jug	513	1048	Orange, fired to buff

in brown (Fig. 30:3). Similar slip-painted bowls were common between the second half of the twelfth and the fifteenth century CE (Avissar and Stern 2005:19, Fig. 7:1–8, Pl. 6:1–7), though their manufacture continued well into the sixteenth century (Walker 2009:60, Fig. 5.19:6–8).

The imported glazed bowls are represented by two examples (a body sherd and a near-complete profile) of Italian polychrome sgraffito ware bowls, made of micaceous, pale orange and reddish-brown ware, respectively. The more complete bowl has everted walls and a broad upturned ledge rim. Both examples bear white slip on the interior, over which a lead glaze in monochrome green or green and yellow splashes was applied. The glaze was then decorated with fine sgraffito in geometric and vegetal designs (Fig. 30:4, 5). These bowls (known as *graffita arcaica*) belong to a well-known class produced in several locations in northeast Italy (those made of orange/reddish-brown fabric originated in the Veneto region). Their production peaked during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries CE, though production continued, albeit making bowls of lesser quality and in smaller quantities, during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries CE (Vroom 2005:142–143). These bowls were widely distributed across the Mediterranean, though they are currently known from relatively few sites in the country, where they were usually attributed to the late Mamluk period (see Avissar and Stern 2005:72–73). Yet, it is reasonable to assume that these bowls continued to be imported to the Levant, albeit in smaller quantities, throughout the sixteenth, and probably, into the seventeenth century CE.

Cooking and Storage Wares and Other Forms

Two types of cooking pots were ascribed to the discussed period. The first is a handmade neck-less cooking pot with a thickened triangular rim and a horizontal, pulled-up strap handle (Fig. 30:6). Globular handmade cooking pots were in use from the thirteenth century CE, with variants of this type continuing into the early Ottoman period (see Avissar and Stern 2005:94–95, Fig. 40:2–7; Avissar 2009:8, 10, Figs. 2.2:2, 3, 2.6:1, 2). The second cooking pot is wheel-made, with a thickened vertical rim and splashes of brown-purple glaze (Fig. 30:7); it is reminiscent of a type dated to the second half of the thirteenth century CE (Avissar and Stern 2005:92, Fig. 39:8).

The only contemporaneous storage-jar type found in the excavations has a vertical neck with an everted rim and a thickened ridge beneath it (Fig. 30:8). This is one of the most common storage-jar types in central and southern contexts in the country, dated to between the mid-thirteenth and the fifteenth or sixteenth centuries CE (Avissar and Stern 2005:102, Fig. 42:5, 6). The jug in Fig. 30:9 has a high vertical neck with two ridges approximately at its middle, an everted, concave rim and when complete, one loop handle from rim to shoulder. This is a long-lived form of water jug (Arabic: *ibrīq*) which appeared during the Mamluk period (Avissar and Stern 2005:111, Fig. 45:9) and continued with minor changes until the twentieth century CE in various ware fabrics, though the present example does not seem to post-date the early Ottoman period.

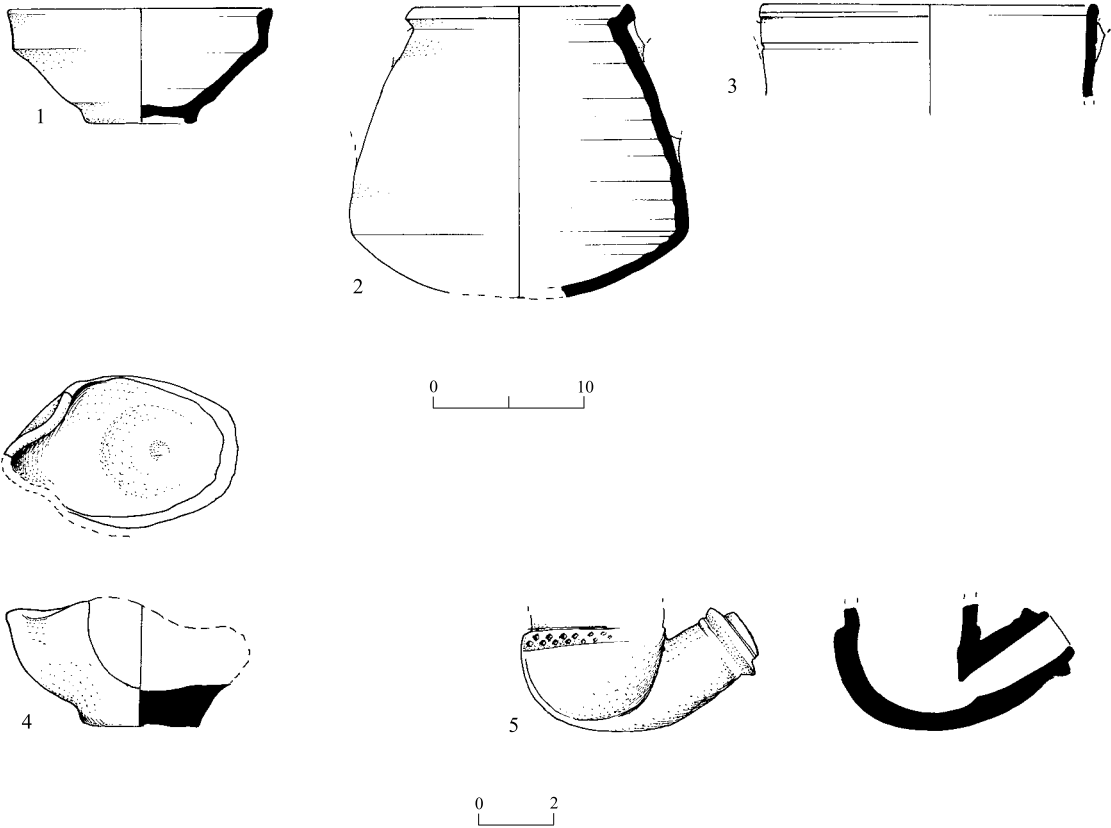


Fig. 31. Late Ottoman–British Mandate pottery.

No.	Type	Area	Locus	Reg. No.	Description
1	Bowl	C	509	1041	Light brown, gray core
2	Cooking pot	C	527	1120	Dark gray
3	Casserole	E2	309	517	Pinkish-orange, brown glaze on int. and orange glaze on ext.
4	Lamp	M5	13	106	Reddish brown, fired to pale gray
5	Smoking pipe	E2	348	634	Light gray; traces of reddish brown slip and rouletted decoration

The Late Ottoman–British Mandate Period

Only a handful of pottery sherds and one smoking pipe representing the late Ottoman and possibly the British Mandate periods were selected for publication. The bowl, with a complete profile in Fig. 31:1, has carinated walls, a thickened rim and a low ring base. This was one of the most common Palestinian bowl forms from the thirteenth century CE onward (see Avissar and Stern 2005:82, Fig. 35:7–10), though the high-temperature fired ware of the present specimen points to a later date, apparently within the eighteenth or nineteenth century CE (cf. Daʿadli 2011:128–130, Figs. 10:7; 13:1).

Two types of cooking wares are illustrated here, one local and the other imported. The first, found in a British Mandate refuse pit (L527), is a small holemouth cooking pot made of dark gray Gaza Ware fabric, with an everted concave rim (a lid device), a globular squat body and two strap handles from shoulder to mid-body (Fig. 31:2). Such cooking pots are known from ethnographic collections and a few archaeological contexts which do not predate the eighteenth or nineteenth century CE (e.g., Israel 2006:178–179, Figs. 167, 167a; Avissar 2009:12, Fig. 2.11:13, 14). Interestingly, the vessel illustrated here bears evidence of intensive use before discarding. First, occasional blackened (soot) patches, which represent accretion from fire contact, are visible on its exterior walls and bottom. Second, heavy abrasion in the form of numerous tiny cavities covers almost the entire area of the pot's interior, excluding the upper 2–3 cm of the wall, as well as parts of the exterior wall and bottom. These may have been created by temperature differences during and after use (namely, thermal spalling; Skibo 1992:110).

The second cooking vessel is a casserole made of a pinkish-orange ware. It has straight walls, a plain rim with a groove underneath, two small strap handles starting below the rim and an orange-brown glaze on the interior and over the rim (Fig. 31:3). Such casseroles are known to have been produced both on the island of Siphnos in the Cyclades, between the eighteenth and the twentieth centuries CE (Vroom 2005:192–193) and, more often, in the town of Vallauris on the Côte d'Azur, near Cannes in Southern France, between the seventeenth and the nineteenth centuries CE (Amouric, Richez and Vallauri 1999:131–135, Figs. 259–263; Kahanov, Cvikel and Wielinski 2012:178–182, 204–207). Due to their high quality, these casseroles were exported to many other parts of the Mediterranean, including Palestine.

The wheel-made, open, pinched-nozzle lamp in Fig. 31:4 belongs to a type that appeared during the Mamluk period (Avissar and Stern 2005:128), but was the predominant, if not the only, lamp form in use during Ottoman times (see Gichon and Linden 1984:157–168, Figs. 1; 2:A, B, D–G; 3).

The single smoking pipe found in the excavations is made of pale gray clay covered with reddish brown slip. It has a short stem with a scalloped stepped termination and a rounded bowl with a rouletted upper portion, which seems to be cylindrical or everted (Fig. 31:5). This type is quite common throughout Palestine and its production has been attributed to local workshops; it is dated to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries CE (see Simpson 2008:439, Fig. 269:30, 31; Sharvit 2011:117–118, Fig. 3).

STONE, METAL AND BONE OBJECTS

A modest number of small finds and some architectural objects made of stone were found in the excavations, mostly—when typologically and/or contextually datable—representing the Byzantine to late Ottoman–British Mandate periods. These were accompanied by contemporaneous metal and bone objects, the majority being iron items originating in late

Ottoman–British Mandate-period refuse pits that are not discussed here.⁴ The following items were chosen for discussion.

Limestone Incense Burner

As mentioned, the isolated Early Islamic deposit (L525) yielded a fragmentary stone incense burner made of hard limestone in the shape of a square or rectangular bowl with a round or oval central depression and (originally) two wide legs. The object's walls and broad rim were decorated with horizontal, vertical and diagonal incisions, a herringbone pattern and concentric circles (Fig. 32:1). Similar objects, made of stone or clay, are known mainly from late Byzantine and Umayyad contexts. According to Rahmani, these burners had a secular use among all the inhabitants of the country between the late sixth and the early eighth centuries CE (Rahmani 1980:121, Pl. 12: D–E). However, parallels of similar objects from Israel show that they were also used in cultic or in multifunctional contexts, such as churches (e.g., Figueras 2004:303, Fig. 68:1), bathhouses (Coen-Uzzielli 1997:453–454, Fig. 7) and burial caves (e.g., Macalister 1912:357, Fig. 185; Avni and Dahari 1990:310–311, Figs. 8, 9). These incense burners are dated somewhat earlier than the example here, though it is not unlikely that such objects continued to be produced well into the Early Islamic period; still, the possibility that this fragmentary burner represents an earlier item should not be rejected.

Marble Polisher(?)

In one of the Byzantine-period accumulations in Building II, a small white marble object (Fig. 32:2) in the form of a rectangular plate (4.8 × 7.0 cm, 1 cm thick) was retrieved. One of its broad faces is highly polished while its other broad face has a central low ridge flanked by thin perpendicular incisions. Its edges are roughly polished. This object is most likely a modified fragment of a fine paving/revetment tile typical of the Byzantine period; perhaps it was reused as a polisher in some artisanal activity.

Limestone Roller(?)

A sub-topsoil fill (L515) excavated south of Building I contained, among other finds, a fragment of a hard limestone column-like object (0.4 m preserved length, diam. 0.19 m; Fig. 32:3). This was possibly a roller—a heavy cylindrical stone intended to level the surface of beaten-earth floors and roofs by moving it with a wooden handle attached to its sides. Such rollers were in use during many periods until recent times (Hirschfeld 1995:123, 244, Fig. 178). However, the present item, which, based on its context, may date to the late Ottoman–British Mandate period, lacks the side holes for attaching a wooden handle.

⁴ The excavations also yielded a few dozen glass fragments, which remained unpublished. These finds included Byzantine (or Late Roman-Byzantine) bowls, jars, bottles and a lamp, and late Ottoman–British Mandate-period bracelets and beads.

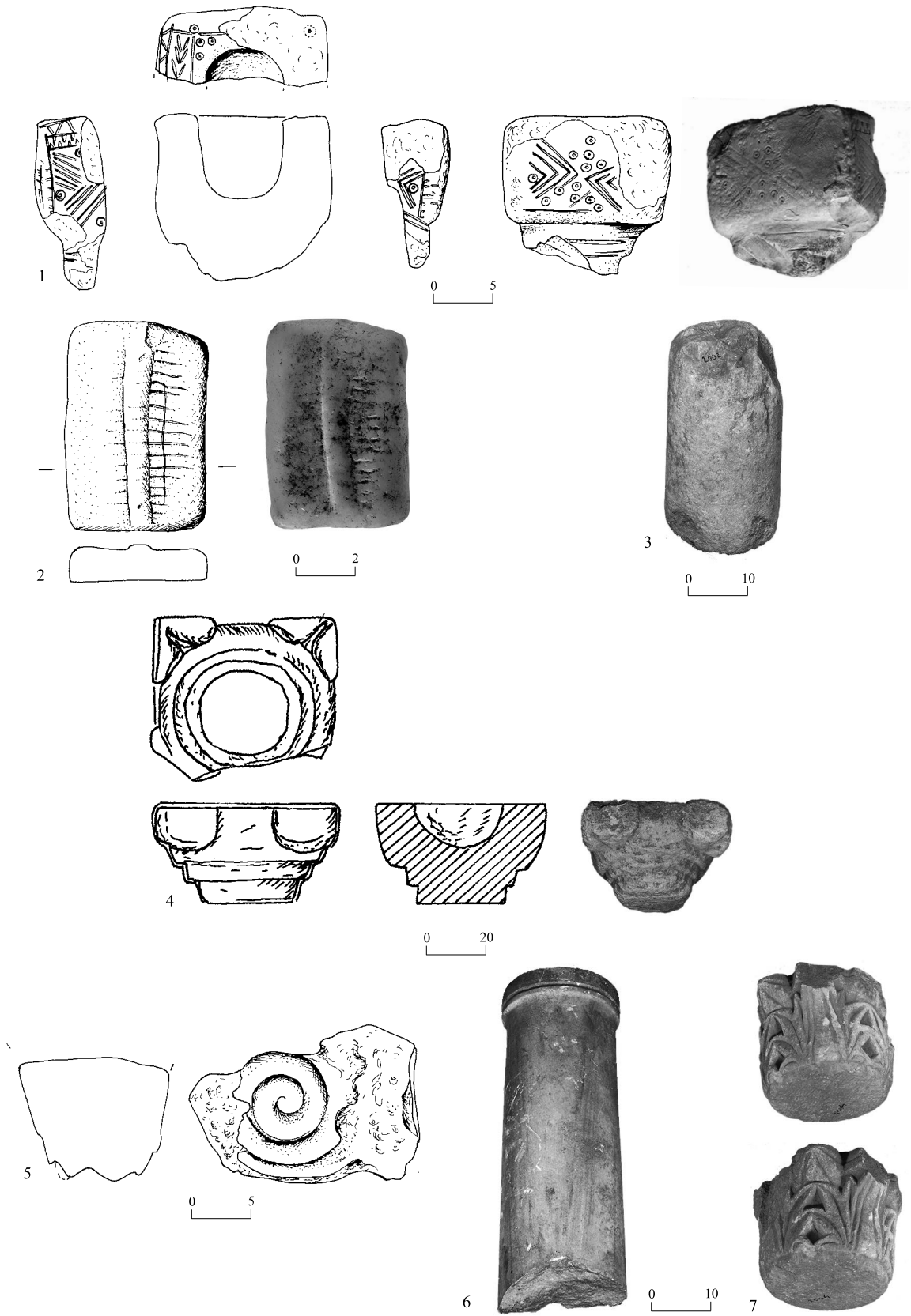


Fig. 32. Stone objects.

◀ Fig. 32

No.	Type	Area	Locus	Reg. No.	Description
1	Incense burner	C	525	1097	Limestone, incised decoration
2	Polisher(?)	E2	370	698	Marble
3	Roller(?)	C	515	1066	Limestone
4	Capital	C	513	1067	Limestone
5	Capital (fragment)	E2	382	710	Limestone
6	Column	E2	346	640	Marble
7	Capital	E2	346	640	Marble

Limestone Column Capitals

Two limestone column capitals were found in the excavations—one near-complete and the other, represented by a small fragment. The first item is a rather small capital (c. 0.3 m high, 0.6 m wide, shaft diam. 0.28 m) representing one of several provincial (Palestinian/Levantine) types of the Ionic order (Fig. 32:4). It has a short, straight shaft, a plain echinus with a protruding register underneath (at the join with the shaft) and four pairs of plain semicircular bosses that protrude from the capital's four corners; the capital has no abacus and eight (instead of four) bosses; it also lacks the pulvinus and balteus that usually appear on the lateral sides of Ionic-style capitals. Similar and related capitals are known from a number of rural sites in the central hill country, where they were often found in contexts—usually churches—dated to the fifth and sixth centuries CE (Taxel 2010:123–126; 2018, with references therein). Close, though larger and more elaborate parallels to this capital were found at nearby Ḥorbat Zikhrin—in a church and a peristyle dwelling that were built around the mid-fifth century CE (Fischer 2018; Taxel 2018:108–113, Figs. 9, 10:1 [Type 5]). However, the exact chronology of the Mazor capital is unclear as it was reused, probably in Mamluk or Ottoman times, as a basin/mortar after a round cavity (diam. c. 0.25 m, 0.12 m deep) was cut into its upper surface.

The other example is a fragment belonging to the corner of a capital, in the form of a deeply-grooved volute (diam. c. 10 cm; Fig. 32:5). Since such volutes occur on both Ionic and Corinthian local capitals, it cannot be identified with either of these orders, though it should most likely be dated to the Byzantine period.

Marble Column and Capital

Two marble architectural items were found in the same debris accumulation (L346) in Building II. The first is the upper part of a narrow marble column with a broad ridged end (diam. 21.5 cm; Fig. 32:6), and the other is a small, partially broken Corinthian capital with a base diameter of 21.5 cm, decorated with two rows of acanthus leaves and without corner volutes (Fig. 32:7). The identical diameter of both items and their origin from the same context indicate that they belonged to the same furnishing element. Columns and



Fig. 33. Metal objects.

No.	Type	Area	Locus	Reg. No.	Description
1	Finger ring	C	506	1053	Copper alloy
2	Finger ring	E2	-	602	Copper alloy, bezel (missing) made of glass or stone
3	Weight	C	503	1072	Copper alloy
4	Weight	E2	346	631	Copper alloy

capitals (almost exclusively Corinthian) of similar dimensions were commonly used in the Byzantine period as part of the altar canopy (*ciborium*) in many church buildings (e.g., Acconci 1998:474–475, 477, Nos. 6–9, 10–19). As mentioned, these finds most likely testify to the existence of a chapel on Building II's second story.

Copper Alloy Finger Rings

Two finger rings made of copper alloys are among the few noteworthy metal objects found in the excavations. The first ring (Fig. 33:1), found on late Ottoman–Mandate-period Floor 506, is a continuous loop (inner diam. 1.8 cm) with a flattened cross-section and a flat oval plain bezel (diam. 0.8×1.0 cm). The second ring (Fig. 33:2), originating in an unknown context, is also a continuous loop (inner diam. 1.7 cm) with a flattened cross-section, though it had an embedded rectangular bezel (0.9×1.3 cm; now missing) made of either glass or a semi-precious stone. A simple decoration of three incised parallel lines appears on each side of the metal piece that joined the loop and the bezel.

Copper Alloy Weights

Two copper alloy scale weights were also found. The first (1 cm high, max. diam. 1.1 cm, 14.59 g) is of the spheroid-shaped type (Fig. 33:3). It has carinated sides and its upper and lower surfaces are decorated with concentric circles. Although found in a British Mandate-period context (Refuse Pit 503), this is a typical Early Islamic commercial steelyard weight.

It forms part of the *dirham* and *dinar* systems, the basic weight units in the Early Islamic period. The *dirham* was equal to c. 2.97 g and the *dinar*'s value was reduced from c. 4.55 g to c. 4.25 g following the monetary reform of 'Abd al-Maliq in 696/697 CE. Hence, the present weight corresponds to an almost five *dirham* unit (cf. Holland 1986:177, 182, 193–195, Nos. 18–34, 59, 60, 105–108).

The second weight, which is brick-shaped (1.4×1.4 cm, 2 mm thick, 4.35 g; Fig. 33:4), was found in one of the debris accumulations within Building II. This weight seems to date to sometime in the seventh century CE. If it dates to the very beginning of the Early Islamic period (apparently before 'Abd al-Maliq's reform), it most probably corresponds to a one-*dinar* unit, or more accurately to a 0.95% pre-reform *dinar* (cf. Holland 1986:177, 195, Nos. 130–163 [here discoid-shaped]). These weights were apparently used not for the weighing of actual coins, but rather, the weighing of miscellaneous commodities (see Khamis 2010:279–280 with references therein).

Bone Comb

This object, found in British Mandate-period Refuse Pit 503, is a fragmentary carved bone comb (2.3×8.0 cm, 0.4 cm thickness) that originally comprised at least three parts connected with pairs of thin iron pins inserted into the comb's body. Based on the width of this fragment it can be assumed that the overall width of the complete comb was about 7 cm. The comb has a row of 12 thick teeth and a row of 25 dense narrow teeth (Fig. 34). Identical combs are known from several other late Ottoman–Mandatory contexts in central Palestine (e.g., Oz 2014: Fig. 7:5; Tsuk, Bordowicz and Taxel 2016:76, Fig. 43:7), and they may have originated from a single production workshop.

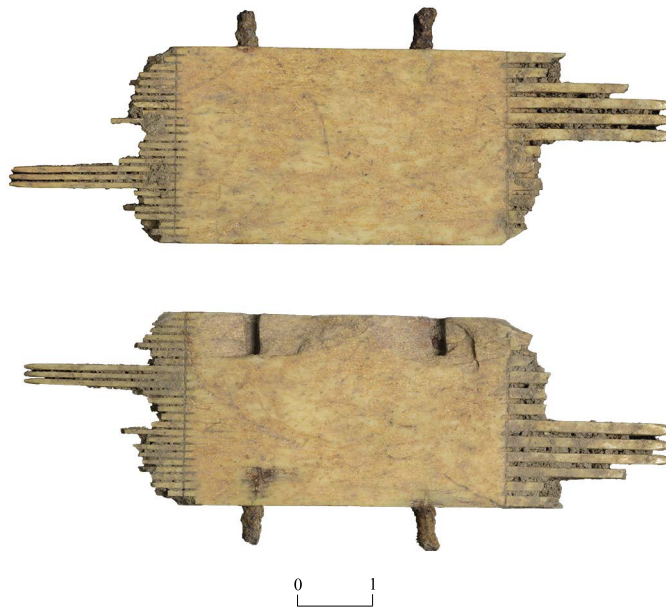


Fig. 34. Bone comb.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of the excavations at Mazor shed light on the history of the site between roughly the second century BCE and the mid-twentieth century CE. The earliest occupation phase that is represented—albeit indirectly—corresponds with the late Hellenistic/Hasmonean and Early Roman periods (second century BCE–early second century CE). Although most of the ceramic and numismatic finds from these periods were found in secondary earth fills that were apparently laid in the foundations of contemporaneous buildings during Byzantine times, these finds can nevertheless be attributed to intensive Hellenistic and Early Roman activity, well-documented by other excavations carried out at the site. The remains associated with these periods included several farmhouses and other structures, agricultural installations and tombs unearthed in various locations within and around the area of al-Muzayri‘ah (see Amit 1998; 1999; Amit and Zilberbod 2001; cf. Taxel 2006a; 2006b). As previous excavations at the site have shown, many of the Hellenistic and Early Roman remains were partially destroyed starting in the Late Roman or Byzantine period, when various domestic and agricultural structures were built over and around them. Apparently, this activity included the removal of earth accumulations containing Hellenistic and Early Roman artifacts from the area of contemporaneous structures to be used as foundation fills for new buildings.

Although some of the pottery sherds and coins found in the excavations discussed here may indicate activity in the area during the end of the Roman or the very beginning of the Byzantine period (fourth century CE), it seems that the actual construction of Buildings I and II and the third building exposed in Area M5 occurred not before the fifth century CE, and more likely between the middle of that century and the early sixth century CE. The three buildings share similar construction methods typical of the Byzantine period in the region, notably massive walls (especially the external ones), built of well-dressed ashlar, coarsely-dressed stones and fieldstones, and a widespread use of bonding materials (mortar and plaster) for the construction and coating of certain walls and their foundations. The nature of the Byzantine-period building excavated in Area M5 is unclear, though it was most likely a dwelling or a related structure. A somewhat better idea can be obtained about nearby Buildings I and II. Although no evidence for an actual connection in the form of a common doorway between these two structures was found, their large dimensions, identical orientation and closeness to each other indicate that they were not only contemporaneous but also belonged to the same architectural/functional complex. Indeed, very little is known about the interior of Building I, but its extensive area and massive peripheral walls are not typical of most contemporaneous rural dwellings. Similarly, the planning of Building II as two different but connected units of storerooms, and what seem to be living quarters and other activity areas—including a possible chapel—built in two stories, is less characteristic of regular private domestic architecture.

It is therefore most reasonable to identify Buildings I and II as part of either a private estate or an agricultural monastery. Both settlement forms, especially monasteries (including

such with a chapel on the second story), are well-known from surveys and excavations carried out throughout the southwestern Samaria Hills and foothills, a region that in Byzantine times was almost exclusively inhabited by a Christian population (see Carmin 2012, *passim*; Magen and Kagan 2012, *passim*). However, due to the high dispersal of excavation areas within and around the site of Mazor, as well as the often rather limited area of these excavations, it cannot be determined currently if, during the Byzantine period, this was a relatively dense-built village with a large estate or monastery at its western fringes or whether the area of modern El'ad was inhabited by a number of independent agricultural entities, including farmsteads/estates and monasteries. At any rate, the owners/residents of Buildings I and II were involved in agriculture as their main if not only source of livelihood, as indicated by the nature of the western unit of Building II and the many contemporaneous wine and oil presses excavated at Mazor (see Sidi, Amit and 'Ad 2003; Amit 2009), some of which may have been related to this complex. The ceramic evidence from the excavations indicates that the local population maintained economic contacts with regional as well as with more distant—both coastal and inland—markets. This settlement, similar to many others in its vicinity, formed part of the eastern hinterland of the largest regional urban center of the time, Lod (Lydda/Diospolis).

The end of this phase in the history of the site probably occurred during the seventh century CE, likely in its second half. However, the reasons for the abandonment and subsequent destruction and looting of the Byzantine (or Byzantine–early Umayyad) buildings are unknown and might be the result of several human- and nature-induced agents. It is also unclear whether the site continued to be occupied on some scale, even if only temporarily, during the eighth century CE or was deserted altogether. It is nevertheless obvious that the next occupation phase, which can be tentatively dated to the ninth–eleventh centuries CE, was much more limited and included a very partial (domestic?) reuse of the Byzantine buildings. This low-scale activity, which may have been interrupted by short occupation gaps, probably continued throughout medieval times and into the early part of the Ottoman period; noteworthy is the fact that the local settlement (village) was known as Mazra'a as early as the late sixteenth century CE. The next substantial phase in the history of the site began in the eighteenth century, when the village—which was known also as al-Muzayri'ah—was reestablished over the earlier remains and continued to exist until the end of the British Mandate period. Structures and other features attributed to the village were unearthed in Areas M5, C and E2, as well as in many other parts of the site. These remains testify to the extensive utilization of the older buildings by the local population, both by the integration of standing walls in the construction of new buildings and by the reuse of the former structures' stones.

Finally, the results of the present excavations call for a brief comparison with the nearby site of Ḥorbat Zikhrin, which was extensively excavated during the 1980s on behalf of Tel Aviv University. Ḥorbat Zikhrin existed as a small settlement (apparently a farmstead) during the Hellenistic and Early Roman periods. The site continued to be occupied, more or less continuously, until the British Mandate period, though the artifactual and architectural

evidence suggests that it reached its peak no earlier than the mid-fifth century CE, with the establishment of a medium-sized Christian village with a church in its center. The Christian village continued to exist until the beginning of the Early Islamic period, while preserving the basic architectural and functional character of the Byzantine period. A clear change in the plan and/or function of virtually the entire architectural complex of the village, as well as an apparent shift in the social structure and religious affinity of at least part of the population, seems to have occurred during the eighth century CE. Consequently, some of the buildings were either abandoned or reused for different purposes. Yet, these changes by no means indicate a decline in the economy or population, as a rather intensive occupation continued at the site throughout the Early Islamic period onward. However, no substantial permanent settlement existed here in the late Ottoman and British Mandate periods (Taxel 2005; 2013; Fischer 2008). The data gleaned from Ḥorbat Zikhrin, which reflect both parallels and differences to the situation known from Mazor, emphasize that sometimes there is great diversity in the history of neighboring contemporaneous sites and that this should be taken into consideration in every archaeological and historical analysis of a given region or sub region, regardless the period or periods examined.

REFERENCES

- Acconci A. 1998. Elements of the Liturgical Furniture. In M. Piccirillo and E. Alliata. *Mount Nebo: New Archaeological Excavations 1967–1997* (SBF Collectio Maior 27) (2 vols.). Jerusalem. Pp. 468–542.
- Amit D. 1998. Mazor, 1993–1996. *ESI* 18:57–66.
- Amit D. 1999. Mazor (El‘ad), 1996–1997. *HA–ESI* 109:55*–64*.
- Amit D. 2009. Wine and Oil Presses from H. Mazor and the Surrounding Region. In E. Ayalon, R. Frankel and A. Kloner eds. *Oil and Wine Presses in Israel from the Hellenistic, Roman and Byzantine Periods* (BAR Int. S. 1972). Oxford. Pp. 213–221.
- Amit D. and Zilberbod I. 2001. Mazor (El‘ad), 1998–2001. *HA–ESI* 113:45*–62*.
- Amouric H., Richez F. and Vallauri L. 1999. *Vingt mille pots sous les mers: Le commerce de la céramique en Provence et Languedoc du X^e au XIX^e siècle*. Aix-en-Provence.
- Ariel D.T. This volume. The Coins from Mazor.
- Arnon Y.D. 2008. *Caesarea Maritima: The Late Periods (700–1291 CE)* (BAR Int. S. 1771). Oxford.
- Avissar M. 1996. The Medieval Pottery. In A. Ben-Tor, M. Avissar and Y. Portugali. *Yoqne‘am I: The Late Periods* (Qedem Reports 3). Jerusalem. Pp. 75–172.
- Avissar M. 2009. Ottoman Pottery Assemblages from Excavations in Israel. In B.J. Walker ed. *Reflections of Empire: Archaeological and Ethnographic Studies on the Pottery of the Ottoman Levant* (AASOR 64). Boston. Pp. 7–14.

- Avissar M. and Stern E.J. 2005. *Pottery of the Crusader, Ayyubid, and Mamluk Periods in Israel* (IAA Reports 26). Jerusalem.
- Avni G. and Dahari U. 1990. Christian Burial Caves from the Byzantine Period at Luzit. In G.C. Bottini, L. Di Segni and E. Alliata eds. *Christian Archaeology in the Holy Land: New Discoveries. Essays in Honor of Virgilio C. Corbo, OFM* (SBF Collectio Maior 36). Jerusalem. Pp. 301–314.
- Ayalon E. 1991. The Large Jars from Yavneh-Yam. In M. Fischer ed. *Yavneh Yam and Its Surroundings*. Kibbutz Palmahim. Pp. 80–88 (Hebrew).
- Bar-Nathan R. 2002. *Hasmonean and Herodian Palaces at Jericho; Final Report of the 1973–1987 Excavations III: The Pottery*. Jerusalem.
- Bar-Nathan R. 2006. *Masada VII: The Yigael Yadin Excavations 1963–1965: Final Reports. The Pottery of Masada*. Jerusalem.
- Barag D. and Hershkovitz M. 1994. Lamps. In *Masada IV: The Yigael Yadin Excavations 1963–1965: Final Reports*. Jerusalem. Pp. 1–147.
- Calderon R. 2000. Roman and Byzantine Pottery. In Y. Hirschfeld. *Ramat Hanadiv Excavations: Final Report of the 1984–1988 Seasons*. Jerusalem. Pp. 91–165.
- Calderon R. 2011. The Pottery from Ḥorbat Gelilot. 'Atiqot 66:63*–78* (Hebrew; English summary, p. 158).
- Canaan T. 1933. *The Palestinian Arab House: Its Architecture and Folklore*. Jerusalem.
- Carmin N. ed. 2012. *Christians and Christianity III: Churches and Monasteries in Samaria and Northern Judea* (JSP 15). Jerusalem.
- Catling H.W. 1972. An Early Byzantine Pottery Factory at Dhiorios in Cyprus. *Levant* 4:1–82.
- Coen-Uzzielli T. 1997. Marble Decorations, Wall Mosaics and Small Finds. In Y. Hirschfeld. *The Roman Baths of Hammat Gader: Final Report*. Jerusalem. Pp. 442–455.
- Cohen Finkelstein J. 1997. The Islamic Pottery from Khirbet Abu Suwwana. 'Atiqot 32:19*–34*.
- Conder C.R. and Kitchener H.H. 1882. *The Survey of Western Palestine II: Samaria*. London.
- Da'adli T. 2011. A Soap-Production Factory from the Ottoman Period in Sūq al-Fakhir, the Old City of Jerusalem. 'Atiqot 67:119–138 (Hebrew; English summary, pp. 93*–94*).
- Egloff M. 1977. *Kellia, la poterie copte: Quatre siècles d'artisanat et d'échanges en Basse-Égypte* (Recherches suisses d'archéologie copte III) (2 vols.). Geneva.
- Fabian P. and Goldfus H. 2004. A Byzantine Farmhouse, Terraces and Agricultural Installations at the Goral Hills near Be'er Sheva'. 'Atiqot 47:1*–14* (Hebrew; English summary, pp. 209–210).
- Figueras P. ed. 2004. *Ḥorvat Karkur 'Illit: A Byzantine Cemetery Church in the Northern Negev; Final Report of the Excavations 1989–1995* (Beer-Sheva XVI). Be'er Sheva'.
- Fischer M. 2008. Zikhrin, Ḥorvat. *NEAEHL* 5. Pp. 2083–2085.
- Fischer M. 2018. Urban Architecture in the Rural Sphere in Byzantine Palestine: Pseudo-Composite Column Capitals from Horvat Zikhrin as a Case Study. *Jerusalem and Eretz-Israel* 10–11:65–87 (Hebrew; English summary, pp. 60*–61*).
- Fuchs R. 1998. The Palestinian Arab House and the Islamic "Primitive Hut". *Muqarnas* 15:157–177.

- Geva H. 2003. Hellenistic Pottery from Areas W and X-2. In H. Geva. *Jewish Quarter Excavations in the Old City of Jerusalem Conducted by Nahman Avigad, 1969–1982 II: The Finds from Areas A, W and X-2; Final Report*. Jerusalem. Pp. 113–175.
- Gichon M. and Linden R. 1984. Muslim Oil Lamps from Emmaus. *IEJ* 34:156–169.
- Gudovitch S. 1998. Mazor—1993. *ESI* 18:57–58.
- Guérin M.V. 1875. *Description géographique, historique et archéologique de la Palestine II: Samarir II*. Paris.
- Guz-Zilberstein B. 1995. The Typology of the Hellenistic Coarse Ware and Selected Loci of the Hellenistic and Roman Periods. In E. Stern ed. *Excavations at Dor; Final Report I, B: Areas A and C. The Finds* (Qedem Reports 2). Jerusalem. Pp. 289–433.
- Hayes J.W. 1972. *Late Roman Pottery*. London.
- Hayes J.W. 1980. *A Supplement to Late Roman Pottery*. London.
- Hirschfeld Y. 1995. *The Palestinian Dwelling in the Roman–Byzantine Period* (SBF Collectio Minor 34). Jerusalem.
- Holland L. 1986. Islamic Bronze Weights from Caesarea Maritima. *ANSMN* 31:171–201.
- Hütteroth W.-D. and Abdulfattah K. 1977. *Historical Geography of Palestine, Transjordan and Southern Syria in the Late 16th Century* (Erlanger Geographische Arbeiten, Sonderband 5). Erlangen.
- Israel Y.M. 2006. *Black Gaza Ware from the Ottoman Period*. Ph.D. diss. Ben-Gurion University of the Negev. Be'er Sheva' (Hebrew; English summary, pp. IV–XII).
- Jackson M., Zelle M., Vandeput L. and Köse V. 2012. Primary Evidence for Late Roman D Ware Production in Southern Asia Minor: A Challenge to 'Cypriot Red Slip Ware'. *Anatolian Studies* 62:89–114.
- Johnson B.L. 2008a. *Ashkelon 2: Imported Pottery of the Roman and Late Roman Periods*. Winona Lake.
- Johnson B.L. 2008b. The Pottery. In J. Patrich. *Archaeological Excavations at Caesarea Maritima, Areas CC, KK and NN; Final Reports I: The Objects*. Jerusalem. Pp. 13–206.
- Kahanov Y., Cvikel D. and Wielinski A. 2012. Dor C Shipwreck, Dor Lagoon, Israel, Evidence for Maritime Connections between France and the Holy Land at the End of the XIXth Century: Building Materials and Ceramics from Marseilles, Vallauris and the Vicinity. *Cahiers d'archéologie subaquatique* 19:173–212.
- Kaplan J. 1985. The Mausoleum at Mazor. *Eretz-Israel* 18:408–418 (Hebrew; English summary, p. 79*).
- Khalidi W. 1992. *All That Remains: The Palestinian Villages Occupied and Depopulated by Israel in 1948*. Washington, D.C.
- Khamis E. 2010. The Metal Artifacts. In O. Gutfeld. *Ramla: Final Report on the Excavations North of the White Mosque* (Qedem 51). Jerusalem. Pp. 279–285.
- Kochavi M. and Beit-Arieh I. 1994. *Map of Rosh Ha-'Ayin (78)* (Archaeological Survey of Israel). Jerusalem.

- Konstantinidou A. 2012. *Pots for Monks: Ceramics and Life in the Old Monastery of Baramūs in the Wādī al-Natrūn, Egypt (4th–9th c.)*. Ph.D. diss. Leiden University. Leiden.
- Levine T. 2003. Pottery and Small Finds from Subterranean Complexes 21 and 70. In A. Kloner. *Maresha Excavations Final Report I: Subterranean Complexes 21, 44, 70* (IAA Reports 17). Jerusalem. Pp. 73–130.
- Macalister R.A.S. 1912. *The Excavation of Gezer, 1902–1905 and 1907–1909* I–III. London.
- Magen Y. and Kagan E.D. 2012. Corpus of Christian Sites. In A.H. Malka ed. *Christians and Christianity I: Corpus of Christian Sites in Samaria and Northern Judea* (JSP 13). Jerusalem. Pp. 93–325.
- Magness J. 1993. *Jerusalem Ceramic Chronology: Circa 200–800 CE* (JSOT/ASOR Monograph Series 9). Sheffield.
- Magness J. 2005. The Roman Legionary Pottery. In B. Arubas and H. Goldfus eds. *Excavations on the Site of the Jerusalem International Convention Center (Binyanei Ha'uma): A Settlement of the Late First to Second Temple Period, the Tenth Legion's Kilnworks, and a Byzantine Monastic Complex; The Pottery and Small Finds* (JRA Suppl. S. 60). Portsmouth, R.I. Pp. 69–191.
- Majcherek G. 1995. Gazan Amphorae: Typology Reconsidered. In H. Meyza and J. Młynarczyk eds. *Hellenistic and Roman Pottery in the Eastern Mediterranean: Advances in Scientific Studies (Acts of the II Nieborów Pottery Workshop; Nieborów, 18–20 December 1993)*. Warsaw. Pp. 163–178.
- Mills P.J.E. and Beaudry N. 2010. Pottery from Late Roman Ras el Bassit, Syria. In S. Menchelli, S. Santoro, M. Pasquinucci and G. Guiducci eds. *LRCW3: Late Roman Coarse Wares, Cooking Wares and Amphorae in the Mediterranean; Archaeology and Archaeometry. Comparison between the Western and Eastern Mediterranean II* (BAR Int. S. 2185 II). Oxford. Pp. 857–866.
- Oz L. 2014. Jerusalem, Qiryat Ha-Yovel. *HA–ESI* 126 (August 6, 2014). http://www.hadashot-esi.org.il/Report_Detail_Eng.aspx?id=9552&mag_id=121 (accessed June 1, 2018).
- Pieri D. 2005. *Le commerce du vin oriental à l'époque byzantine (V^e–VII^e siècles): Le témoignage des amphores en Gaule* (Bibliothèque archéologique et historique 174). Beirut.
- Rahmani L.Y. 1980. Palestinian Incense Burners of the Sixth to Eighth Centuries C.E. *IEJ* 30:116–122.
- Reynolds P. 2003. Lebanon. In C. Bakirtzis ed. *VII^e Congrès international sur la céramique médiévale en Méditerranée, Thessaloniki, 11–16 Octobre 1999*. Athens. Pp. 536–546.
- Riley J.A. 1975. The Pottery from the First Session of Excavation in the Caesarea Hippodrome. *BASOR* 218:25–63.
- Rodziewicz M. 1976. *Alexandrie I: La céramique romaine tardive d'Alexandrie*. Warsaw.
- Sharvit Y. 2011. Clay Tobacco Pipes from Naḥal Ha-Taninim. In E. Ayalon and A. Izdarechet eds. *Caesarea Treasures I*. Jerusalem. Pp. 115–132 (Hebrew).
- Sidi N., Amit D. and 'Ad U. 2003. Two Winepresses from Kefar Sirkin and Mazor. *'Atiqot* 44:253–266.
- Simpson St.J. 2008. Late Ottoman Pipes from Jerusalem. In K. Prag. *Excavations by K.M. Kenyon in Jerusalem 1961–1967 V: Discoveries in Hellenistic to Ottoman Jerusalem* (Levant Suppl. S. 7). Oxford. Pp. 433–446.

- Skibo J.M. 1992. *Pottery Function: A Use-Alternation Perspective*. New York.
- Stacey D. 2004. *Excavations at Tiberias, 1973–1974: The Early Islamic Periods* (IAA Reports 21). Jerusalem.
- Sussman V. 2007. The Clay Oil Lamps from Khirbat el-Ni‘ana. *‘Atiqot* 57:53–72.
- Tal O. and Taxel I. 2015. *Samaritan Cemeteries and Tombs in the Central Coastal Plain: Archaeology and History of the Samaritan Settlement outside Samaria (ca. 300–700 CE)* (Ägypten und Altes Testament 82). Münster.
- Taxel I. 2005. *The Transition between the Byzantine and the Early Islamic Periods (the 7th Century CE) as Seen through Rural Settlement: Horvat Zikhrin as a Case Study*. M.A. thesis. Tel Aviv University. Tel Aviv (Hebrew; English summary, pp. IV–XI).
- Taxel I. 2006a. A Persian through Late Ottoman Period Site at Mazor (El‘ad). *Salvage Excavation Reports* 3:15–21.
- Taxel I. 2006b. A Salvage Excavation and Survey in the Environs of Mazor (El‘ad). *Salvage Excavation Reports* 3:22–39.
- Taxel I. 2009. *Khirbet es-Suyyagh: A Byzantine Monastery in the Judean Shephelah* (Salvage Excavation Reports 6). Tel Aviv.
- Taxel I. 2010. *Aspects of the Material Culture of the Rural Settlement in the Province of Palaestina Prima in the Fifth–Seventh Centuries CE*. Ph.D. diss. Tel Aviv University. Tel Aviv (Hebrew; English summary, pp. iii–xiii).
- Taxel I. 2013. Identifying Social Hierarchy through House Planning in the Villages of Late Antique Palestine: The Case of Ḥorvat Zikhrin. In *Mondes ruraux en Orient et Occident II (Antiquité Tardive* 21). Turnhout. Pp. 149–166.
- Taxel I. 2018. Late Antique Ionic Column Capitals in the Countryside of Central Palestine between Provincial Trends and Classical Traditions. *Studies in Late Antiquity* 2/1:84–125.
- Taxel I. and HersHKovitz M. 2011. The Hellenistic and Early Roman Pottery. In Y. Thareani. *Tel ‘Aroer: The Iron Age II Caravan Town and the Hellenistic–Early Roman Settlement; The Avraham Biran (1975–1982) and Rudolph Cohen (1975–1976) Excavations* (ANGSBA VIII). Jerusalem. Pp. 343–368.
- Tsuk T., Bordowicz I. and Taxel I. 2016. Majdal Yābā: The History and Material Culture of a Fortified Village in Late Ottoman- and British Mandate-Palestine. *Journal of Islamic Archaeology* 3/1:37–88.
- Vroom J. 2005. *Byzantine to Modern Pottery in the Aegean (7th to 20th Century): An Introduction and Field Guide*. Utrecht.
- Walker B.J. 2009. Identifying the Late Islamic Period Ceramically: Preliminary Observations on Ottoman Wares from Central and Northern Jordan. In B.J. Walker ed. *Reflections of Empire: Archaeological and Ethnographic Studies on the Pottery of the Ottoman Levant* (AASOR 64). Boston. Pp. 37–65.

